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ASSAM DISTRICT GAZETTEERS.

Volume I.

CACHAR

BY

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PREFACE.

The Gazetteer of Cachar lacks what is generally associated with works of this nature, *i.e.*, a directory. There is, however, only one town in the district, and that town has been described at length. The great bulk of the population live on tea gardens or in villages, which do not lend themselves to a detailed description, and a directory of these villages would be entirely out of place. Lists of all the tea gardens and of all villages that are centres of trade have, however, been appended to the volume, and reference has been made in the text to all villages which are noted for any special industry. It is hardly necessary to add that whenever the Province is referred to, it is to the old Province of Assam, as constituted in 1904, that reference is made. My acknowledgments are due to the Deputy Commissioner, Captain Kennedy, for his kindness in examining the work in proof.

B. C. ALLEN.

SHILLONG:
September, 1905.

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CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL ASPECTS.

General Aspects—Mountain System—River System—General appearance and scenery—*Bils*—Geology—Mineral deposits—Climate—Storms and earthquakes—Fauna.

THE Cachar district, which derives its name from the Kachari tribe, is situated between 24°8′ and 25°49′ N. and 91°28′ and 93°31′ E. It is bounded on the north by the Jaintia Hills, Nowgong, and the Naga Hills; on the east by the Naga Hills and Manipur; on the south by the Lushai Hills district; and on the east by Sylhet and the Jaintia Hills. The district consists of two distinct portions—the hills, which are a section of the Assam Range, and the plains, which form the eastern extremity of the Surma Valley. With the exception of an insignificant tract of level land in the angle formed by the junction of the Kapili and the Doiang, the whole of the North Cachar subdivision, which covers an area of 1,651 square miles, is hilly country. The area of the two remaining subdivisions of Silchar and Hailakandi, which is generally classed as plain, is 1,918 square miles. It must not, however, be

General Aspects.

supposed that the whole of this very considerable area is actually level land. The Silchar subdivision includes the southern section of the Assam Range, a belt of hilly country, with an average width of six or seven miles, containing peaks between three and four thousand feet in height. On the eastern frontier there is the Bhuban range, which covers a considerable area, and rises in places to over 3,000 feet above the level of the sea; while on the west of the Hailakandi valley the Chhatachura or Saraspur hills stretch in a continuous line to the Barak. Almost the whole of the country north and south of that river is, moreover, dotted over with low ranges, or isolated hills called *tilas*, which rise like islands from the dead level of the alluvium; and it thus follows that a large proportion of the Cachar Plains is not level land at all.

Mountain system. North Cachar.

From the Jaintia Hills to a point a little to the west of Asalu, the Barail or 'great dyke,' runs almost due east and west across the district, and forms a continuous wall of mountains, gradually increasing in height towards the east. Kalangtam, where the range enters Cachar, is 4,836 feet above the level of the sea; the next important peak is Jentahajuma (5,127 feet), while Sherfaisip, a little to the north, is 5,617 feet. To the south-east of Haflang there are three peaks over 5,700 feet in height. Here the range takes a sharp turn towards the north, and reaches its greatest elevation at Hampeopet (6,153 feet), but from this point it gradually declines in height, and at Laikek, a little before it enters the district of the Naga Hills, it is only 2,628 feet above sea-level. Almost the whole of the district north of the Barail is a mass of

hilly country. The general tendency of these hills is to run north and south, but there are only two well-defined ranges, and few summits above 3,000 feet in height. Except on the west these hills take the form of serrated ridges, which rise sharply from the streams which hurry down the valleys at their feet. In their natural state they are covered with dense tree forest, and this is the condition in which the summits still remain. The lower slopes have generally been cleared for the shifting cultivation of the hill-men, and during the interval of rest that is allowed between each period of cultivation are covered with a dense growth of high grass jungle and bamboo. South of the Barail there is a belt of hilly country containing several ranges of some importance with a general trend from north-east to south-west. On the west of the Jatinga river there is a short range with one peak, Damcharahaju, over 8,000 feet in height; while the hills on the eastern side of that river rise to an altitude of 4,402 feet at Upulia, and 3,634 feet at the sanatorium of Nemotha. Further east there are two considerable ranges, which run almost north and south and rise to a height of between three and four thousand feet.

Hills in South Cachar.

The Bhuban hills are a continuation of the Lushai system, and run almost due north along the eastern boundary of the district to the junction of the Jiri and the Barak. The main range contains peaks varying from two to three thousand feet in height, and throws out a continuous succession of spurs on either side to the east and west. The Rengti hills, like the Bhubans, project from the Lushai system, and are separated from the Bhubans by the broad valley of the Rukni and Sonai.

Shortly after entering the district they throw out a well-defined spur towards Barunchara on the west, but the main range continues northwards past Cooly Ghat, and then takes a sharp bend westward to Jafirbund. Throughout the whole of its length the Hailakandi valley is shut in between two ranges. The first section in the south-west is known as the Chhatachura range, and starts from the peak of that name, whose summit is 2,087 feet above the level of the sea. The hills gradually decline in height, and the middle section, which bears the name of Saraspur, is only 1,000 feet above sea-level, while near the Barak, where they are known as the Badarpur hills, they are only a few hundred feet in height. A little to the east of the Chhatachura Range runs another and outer range of much lower hills, different sections of which are known as the Katlicharra, Alexandrapur, and Latakandi hills. South of Jafirbund almost the whole of the Hailakandi subdivision east of the Dhaleswari is dotted over with low hills, but the actual range, which stretches northwards from the southern frontier of the district to the Barak and bounds the Hailakandi valley on the east, is known under the following names going from south to north: Jhalnachara, Barunchara, Rupachara, Nunaikhal, Hasiura, Kalachara, Bandukmara, Mohanpur, and Rabatabad hills. North of Jafirbund these hills are very low, and the different sections of the range are separated from one another by considerable intervals of level land. The Bhuban range and the hills to the south of the Hailakandi valley are covered with forest and dense bamboo jungle, and take the form of narrow ridges with steeply

sloping sides which here and there bristle into peaks. North of the Barak the outlying spurs of the Assam range have level summits covered with a rich and fertile soil. Many of these hills have been cleared and planted out with tea, and tea is also grown on the low hills or *tilas* which are dotted about over almost every portion of the plain except the valley of the Sonai.

River system. The Barak.

The principal river of Cachar is the Barak, which rises a little to the east of Mao thana, on the southern slopes of the lofty range which forms the northern boundary of Manipur. From there it flows a westerly and southerly course to Tipaimukh, when it turns sharply to the north, and for a considerable distance forms the boundary line between Cachar and Manipur. After its junction with the Jiri, it turns again to the west, and flows a tortuous course across the centre of the district till Sylhet is reached at Badarpur. From Badarpur to Haritikar the Barak forms the boundary between the two districts, but at the latter place the river divides into two branches, and the southern arm, which is known as the Kusiyara, crosses the frontier of Sylhet. The northern branch, which is called the Surma, continues to form the boundary of Cachar as far as Jalalpur. The total length of the Barak from its source to its confluence with the old stream of the Brahmaputra near Bhairab Bazar is about 560 miles; but of this only 120 miles lie through or on the borders of Cachar. In the cold weather the Barak is in places extremely shallow, and the river flows between steep banks which rise to a a height of 40 or 50 feet on either side. After heavy rain in the hills it is subject to strong freshets, and the

level of the water sometimes rises 20 or 30 feet in a surprisingly short space of time. The extent to which the river is used as a waterway will be discussed in the section on communications.

The Jiri.

The Barak receives numerous small tributaries from the hills through which it makes its way, but the Jiri is the first important affluent to join it in Cachar. This river rises in the North Cachar Hills, and flows a course of 75 miles to its confluence with the Barak, during the greater part of which it acts as the boundary line between British territory and Manipur. Its principal tributaries are the Jhinam, and the Digli or Kumrunga, which drain the hills immediately to the west.

The Chiri and Madhura.

A little to the west of Lakhipur the Barak receives the Chiri or Longkhao which rises on the southern slopes of the high range near Haflang. The next important tributary is the Madhura or Bongpai which joins it a little to the west of Silchar town.

The Jatinga.

The Jatinga river is well known as the railway line has been carried up its valley. It rises south of Haflang and flows west and south through the hills till it debouches on the plain at Panighat. From here it flows through the Barkhala pargana, and after receiving the Doloo on its left bank, falls into the Barak nearly opposite Jaynagar, after a course of 36 miles. West of the Jatinga there are numerous small streams which drain the country south of the Barail, but are of little importance except as drainage channels.

The Sonai.

The principal rivers on the south are the Dhaleswari and the Sonai. The latter rises in the Lushai Hills

and after a tortuous northerly course of 60 miles, falls into the Barak at Sonaimukh. As far as Maniarkhal it flows through forest land, but from this point to its mouth its banks are fringed with villages.

The Dhaleswari. The Dhaleswari also rises in the Lushai Hills where it is known as the Tlong. It used originally to flow along the west side of the Hailakandi valley, and fall into the Barak a little to the east of Badarpur. A former Raja of Cachar is said to have diverted its course a little above Rangpur, and the old channel is now filled up for a distance of about one mile after the commencement of the new channel, which is called the Katakhal. In spite of the fact that the lower reaches of the Dhaleswari are completely cut off from the river that issues from the Lushai Hills, the bed still contains a considerable quantity of water, and between June and September a boat of four tons burthen can proceed above Hailakandi town as far as Ainakhal. The Katakhal flows along the east of the valley and falls into the Barak near Salchapra. The banks are steep and high and the channel of the river deep, but it is liable to sudden freshets, which occasionally do some damage to the villages in the neighbourhood, and small embankments have been erected on two or three gardens to prevent the spill water from injuring the tea. The country between the Sonai and the Katakhal is drained by the Rukni, a tributary of the former river, and the Ghagra which falls into the Barak.

The northern rivers. North of the Barail the principal drainage channel is the Doiang, which rises near the Mahur station and flows a tortuous course through the centre of the subdivision. From its junction with the Langpher river near

Lamsakhang it forms the northern boundary of the district till it falls into the Kapili, which for the greater parts of its course acts as the western boundary of the North Cachar Hills. The principal tributaries of the Doiang are, on the left bank the Dalaima, the Langlai, and the Langyen. On the right bank it is joined by the Mahur, with its tributary the Mupa, and the Langting. During their passage to the plains these rivers present the phenomena usually to be observed in hill streams. The channel is full of rocks and boulders, which, in conjunction with the rapidity of the current, render them useless for the purposes of navigation. The rivers roar their way towards the lower levels, but, though they add much to the charm of the surrounding scenery, and carry off the rainfall of the hills, they do not as yet contribute anything towards the material development of the country.

General appearance and scenery.

The general appearance of the Cachar Plains is extremely picturesque. On the north, east, and south they are shut in by range upon range of purple hills whose forest-clad sides are seamed with white landslips and gleaming waterfalls. There are none of those wide stretches of unbroken plain, which form so tedious a feature in the landscape in many parts of India. Low hills crop up here and there above the alluvium, rising like rocky islets out of a summer sea; and in one direction or another mountains always bound the view. To the south much of the country is still covered with primeval forest. Further north the higher land has been cleared and planted out with tea, while the lower levels are covered with rich crops of waving rice. Here and there

swamps and *bils*, with clumps of elephant grass and reeds, lend variety to the view. The Barak winds through the centre of the plain, its surface dotted with the white sails of native craft, and its banks for the most part lined with villages. These villages are buried in groves of slender areca palms, broad-leaved plantains, and feathery bamboos, and at all seasons of the year the country looks fresh and green. The hills in North Cachar rise as a rule in steep slopes, covered with forest and bamboo jungle, but rocks and precipices are seldom to be seen.

The following description of the marshes of Cachar, which is taken from Sir William Hunter's work,* is stated by the Deputy Commissioner to be still substantially correct. The process of silting up has, however, advanced considerably during the last twenty years, and in the Bakri *haor* high ground has been formed on which permanent villages have been established. In addition to the ones mentioned by Sir William Hunter there are the following large *bils* in the Hailakandi subdivision: Bawa, 2 square miles; Churgul, 2 square miles; Kuliala, 1 square mile; Chunati, ½ square mile. Bils.

There are no artificial watercourses or lakes in Cachar District; but the Chatla Fen, during three or four months of the rainy season, swells into a lake-like sheet of water, navigable by the boats which supply rice to the neighbouring tea plantations. It is difficult to give an estimate of the area of this piece of water, as it varies much from year to year, and it is not easy to determine where the actual *bil* begins and where marsh-jungle ends. Its dimensions may, however, be approximately stated to be about 12 miles in length, and

* "A Statistical Account of Assam," Vol. II, page 367.

two miles in breadth at the widest part. The Chatla Fen plays so important a part in the physical geography of Cachar, that an account of it as it appears in the rainy season, and of the land-making process which is steadily going on in its swamps, may not be found uninteresting. The Barak river enters Cachar from the east as a considerable stream, over-charged with silt; and in its course through the district it receives the torrents from the Naga Hills on the north, and the Lushai territory on the south. As soon as the periodical rains set in, both the Chatla and the Hailakandi valleys turn into swamps. For a time they manage to discharge a good deal of their water into the Barak; but as this river receives its freshes from the eastward, it rises above the level of the two valleys, and instead of relieving them of their drainage, pours its own floods into them. Its rise and fall are so sudden, that within 24 hours the direction of the water changes, and the current, which in the morning was streaming out of the marshes into the river, comes rushing back into the fen before night. The outward stream is of the clear brown colour of marsh water, which is charged indeed with organic matter, but has deposited in the swamps *en route* whatever silt it brought from the Lushai Hills. On the other hand, when the Barak rises above the level of the fen, it sends a thick, muddy torrent out of its main channel, heavy with silt, and the colour of pea-soup. The inundation spreads over the vast expanse, swelling the marshes into a wide and deep lake, from which rise little conical isolated hills, with trim rows of tea bushes on their slopes, the coolie lines half-way up, and the planter's neat mat cottage on the summit. Everything else is submerged, except here and there a grove of *higil* trees, whose dark green tops stand up like laurel bushes above a depth of 15 feet of water. As long as their highest branches can breathe the air, these trees will bear any amount of inundation. When the river subsides, the stream again turns from the fen into the Barak. But meanwhile the muddy river water has deposited its silt, and gradually passed through a pale straw colour into a light or deep brown. It leaves behind it a layer of fresh slime, and by innumerable repetitions of this process the bottom of the fen gradually rises. The fishermen say that in some places the depth of water in ordinary floods decreases at the rate of 18 inches every ten years. The process of land-making thus goes on, age after age, the lakes gradually shallowing into fens, the fens into reedy swamps, and the swamps into marshy prairies, covered with coarse grass. At present the Chatla fen exhibits the process in all its stages.

It now contains about 60 deep pools, or *kuris,* in which the filling-up stage has not yet gone far enough to admit even of the longest-stemmed aquatic plant rising to the surface. These pools, the fishermen say, were formerly 90 in number, but many of them have passed into the fen stage, and almost all of them have grown shallower within the memory of a single generation. Meanwhile the shallow marshes slowly rise up into dry land, offering rich crops for the most careless tillage. At the end of the rainy season the dry land emerges in mud and wild disorder. As far as the eye can reach, all is unformed chaos; and in riding across it in the cold weather, one might expect to see a megatherium, or other vast pre-Adamite monster, slide down some slimy bank into the quagmire. Quagmires, indeed, form a typical feature in the landscape. The traveller suddenly comes upon a patch of bright green vegetation, which the unwary might mistake at a little distance for luxuriant grass, but which the more experienced at once recognises as a deep and treacherous quagmire. During the rains sudden whirlwinds sweep across the fen, and, although of brief duration, blow with tremendous violence while they last. The unfortunate boat which has trusted to the shortness of its voyage to enable it to dispense with an anchor, has no resource but to drive helplessly before the storm till it sticks in a reedy marsh, or can fasten itself to its punting poles by fixing them into the shallow mud of a rice-field. Sometimes little fleets of grain barges are thus dispersed in the fen, and are carried by the force of the wind over roods of shallow water, which they find it afterwards impossible to recross without unlading. In the cold weather the ground is broken up by cracks, ravines, beds of silted-up rivers, muddy holes, and quagmires.

Besides the Chatla fen, the following are the other more important marshes in the district, with their estimated area:—(1) Bakri *haor,* area 10 square miles; (2) Bowalia, 6 square miles; (3) Dubri *bhil,* 1 square mile; (4) Koya, 1 square mile; (5) Karkaria *bhil,* ½ square mile; (6) Thaphani *bhil,* 4 square miles.

Geology. The following account of the geological formation of the North Cachar Hills has been given by Mr. De La Touche*:—

"Beyond the limestone ridge to the south-east of the hot

* Records of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. XVI, pt. 4, p. 202.

springs upper tertiary rocks extend in an unbroken mass to the Barail range above Asalu. As far as the police outpost of Gunjong these rocks are horizontal, or nearly so, consisting of fine grained sand-stones and shales. It is in the valley of the Mahur, to the east of Gunjong, that the change from the generally undisturbed condition of the newer rocks on the Shillong plateau takes place, the upper tertiary rocks to the east being everywhere greatly disturbed. The transition does not take place so abruptly as on the southern edge of the plateau, where the newer rocks are bent down suddenly in a uniclinal curve into the area of disturbance; but it is well marked, the rocks at Gunjong having a slight inclination to the east, while in the Mahur Valley they are sharply contorted, and at Kuilong on the opposite side are nearly vertical."

The Chief Engineer engaged on the construction of the Assam-Bengal Railway reported that for the first 80 miles after leaving the Cachar Plains the line ran through shale of the worst description, often intermixed with bands of kaolin. The latter substance swells on exposure and causes heavy slips, and exerts immense pressure on the sides of tunnels, and the difficulty and expense of the construction of the railway was largely increased by the character of the strata through which the line was made. The soil of the plains is of alluvial origin and consists of a mixture of clay and sand in varying proportions: the hills to the south of the district have never been properly explored, but they probably resemble those inhabited by the Lushais.

Mineral deposits.

Lime is found on a tributary of the Langting to the north-east of Maibang station. The rocks here are shales dipping at 20° to the north-north-west, and the stream has deposited a bed of calcareous tufa on the upturned edges of the shales. The deposit is of small extent and has nowhere a greater thickness than two feet. Similar deposits have been found in the valleys near Gunjong.

The Subdivisional Officer of North Cachar reports that outcrops of lime-stone are also to be seen in the country between the Doiang and Kapili, in the valleys of the Amram and Langyam streams, and at Sinkilangso, Langhuha, and other places. Neither iron nor coal are worked within the hills. Petroleum has been found at Masimpur and Badarpur on the banks of the Barak, and on the Larang, a small stream which rises to the north of Damcharahaju. Traces of it have also been seen at various places in the Saraspur hills. Salt springs exist both in this range, the Bhuban hills, and the Barail, but are only worked near Bansbari and Chandipur in the north-west corner of the Hailakandi valley. The springs are leased annually for a trifling sum, and the brackish water is sold to the people in the neighbourhood. There are hot springs on the right bank of the Kapili near Panimur.

The climate of Cachar is not so pleasant as that of Upper Assam. The rainfall is extremely heavy, but the temperature in the rains is considerably higher than that recorded in Dibrugarh, and the winter is not nearly so cold and bracing as in the northern valley. The average maximum temperature in January is under 78° Fahrenheit, but this is nearly 7° higher than that recorded in Dibrugarh, and, though the mornings are cold and sometimes foggy, the sun at midday and in the early afternoon has still considerable power. In March the temperature begins to rise, but heavy rain in April and May prevents the development of anything in any way resembling the hot weather of Upper India. Between June and September the climate is far from pleasant. The average maximum temperature during Climate.

this period is nearly 90°, the average minimum nearly 77°, and though these temperatures in themselves cannot be considered high, they are most oppressive in an atmosphere surcharged with moisture. During these four months no less than 78 inches of rain fall at the headquarters of the district, and, shut in as it is on three sides by hills, the air of the plain resembles that of a vapour bath. In October the nights begin to grow a little cooler, but the sun is still very hot in the middle of the day, and it is not till the middle of the following month that the cold weather can be said to have regularly set in. The average maximum and minimum temperature recorded each month at Silchar will be found in Table I. In almost every month there is a marked difference between the temperature of Silchar and Dibrugarh, and the average maximum for the year at the latter place is 5 degrees, and the average minimum 3 degrees lower than that recorded at Silchar.

Rainfall.

Table II in the appendix shows the rainfall recorded at certain selected stations in the district. The average annual fall at Silchar is 121 inches, but near the foot of Assam Range it is not far short of 170. The storm clouds sweeping up the valley are, however, stopped by the Barail, and it is on its southern slopes that most of this aqueous vapour is precipitated in the form of rain. At Haflang, immediately to the north of this wall of hills, there are but 77 inches in the year, and at Maibang the annual fall is as little as 55 inches. November to February are the only four months in the year that can be considered dry, as the spring rains are unusually heavy. In March Silchar receives nearly 8 inches, in

April nearly 14, and in May no less than 16 inches; and this before the bursting of the regular monsoon. June and July are generally the wettest months in the year, but August runs them very close.

Storms and earth-quakes.

At Silchar the wind generally blows from the north-east in the morning and from the south-east in the afternoon. About the end of February stormy weather sets in, and in March there are often thunderstorms, and not unfrequently heavy falls of hail which do much damage to the tea. In April and May these storms become less violent, and at no season of the year do they assume the form of cyclones or tornadoes.

The earth-quake of 1869.

Cachar, like the rest of Assam, is a seismic area, and considerable damage was done by the shock which occurred on January 10th, 1869. This earthquake was felt in Upper Burma, and as far to the west and south as Patna and Hazaribagh, over a total area of some 250,000 square miles; but Manipur and the eastern end of the Surma Valley were the places that suffered most severely from this visitation. Dr. Oldham, who enquired into the circumstances of this earthquake, was of opinion that the shock probably originated in a fissure about 20 miles long, situated at a considerable depth below the surface on the northern border of the Jaintia Hills. The serious damage wrought in Silchar was due to the fact that the town is situated on a peninsula washed by the Barak river, and to the abnormally high angle of emergence.* The shock occurred at 4-45 P.M. on a cool winter's day, in which there was nothing to suggest the

* Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India, Vol. XIX Pt. I, p. 65 and 70.

approach of any unusual visitation. One eye-witness describes the gradual development of the earthquake in the following terms: "It came on with a gentle undulating movement, which, however, rapidly increased, until neither men nor animals could keep their legs but were thrown down, and such things as bottles, glasses, lamps, were upset, and the *gumlas* were half emptied of water. The water in tanks and rivers was violently agitated, and the Barak rose in huge waves, and wrecked numbers of boats. The landslips caused were numerous and extensive, and many homesteads were carried down the stream." The jail wall, the church tower, the cemetery gates, and the military hospital were all thrown in ruins to the ground. The Deputy Commissioner's bungalow was also wrecked, but this was probably due to the fact that some of the posts in the verandah had been removed in order that they might be replaced by newer timbers, and the bungalows in the neighbourhood sustained but trifling injuries. The Bazar was a scene of utter desolation. Bamboo and mat houses, which elsewhere had remained standing, were here wrecked as hopelessly as the masonry buildings with which they were interspersed. This was due to the fact that they were built near the river's bank which subsided under the influence of the shock, and was broken up into crevasses and fissures. The houses were not shattered by the tremor of the earth, but by the unequal subsidence of the land on which they stood. Luckily the earthquakes occurred in the day-time, when the people were out of doors, or could leave their houses without difficulty, and only six lives were

lost.* In the newer alluvial deposits the earth was broken up into cracks and fissures, and sand and muddy water spouted forth.

The earthquake of 1897.

The great earthquake of June 12th, 1897, was sensible over an area of 1,750,000 square miles, while the area over which it is known to have done serious damage to masonry buildings was not less than 145,000 square miles; but Cachar was fortunate enough to escape with comparatively little injury. The earthquake is said to have occurred about 5-20 P.M., and the shock was less severe than that experienced in 1869. Hardly any damage was done to buildings in Silchar, but the residence of the Subdivisional Officer and the dak bungalow, both at Hailakandi and Haflang, were rendered uninhabitable. Fissures appeared in the soil, and in the Katigara tahsil houses and land in the neighbourhood of the Barak subsided into the river. Some damage was also done on tea-gardens, and altogether three lives were lost. Little damage was done to the unopened section of the railway in the North Cachar Hills, but the bridges between Badarpur and Silchar sustained serious injuries. Nine of the eleven piers which supported the bridge across the Katakhal were thrown down, and the bridges across the Dhaleswari and the Ghagra were also damaged.

Fauna.

Wild animals include elephants, which are generally found in the hills to the south of the district, buffalo

* Somewhat exaggerated accounts have been published of this earthquake. It has been said that "The church, which was in course of building and nearly finished, was levelled with the ground. Nearly all the buildings, including the Government offices, were destroyed wholly or in part." As a matter of fact, it does not appear that the walls of the Church were even cracked, while the injury to the Government buildings was inconsiderable.

and bison, which are found in the North Cachar Hills, tigers, leopards, bears, and various kinds of deer. For the purpose of elephant hunting, the district is divided into two mahals. The right to hunt in these mahals is put up to auction, and, in addition to the auction price, the purchaser is required to pay a royalty of Rs. 100 on each animal captured. In the three years ending 1903-04, forty-six elephants were on the average annually captured. The larger carnivora are no longer common in the plains, and in 1904 rewards were only paid for the destruction of 17 tigers, 16 leopards and 36 bears. Small game include snipe, wild geese and duck, pheasants, partridges, and jungle fowl.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORY.

Traditional origin of Kacharis—Wars between Kacharis and Ahoms—Migration to Maibang—Migration to Cachar Plains—The eighteenth century. *Approach of British—Conversion* to Hinduism—Invasion of Cachar from Manipur—Restoration and death of Gobind Chandra—Native System of administration—Pemberton's description of Cachar—Revenues of Kachari Raja—Tula Ram Senapati's territory—Development of the Cachar Plains—Destruction of mutineers in 1857-58—Sambhudan's rising in 1882—Frontier troubles—The Lushai raids—Murders at Baladhan—Archæology.

Traditional origin of Kacharis.

THE Kacharis of Cachar, or Dimasa, as they call themselves, are generally supposed to be a section of the great Bodo horde. This populous and powerful race is said to have had its origin somewhere between the upper waters of the Yang-tse-kiang and the Hoang-ho, to have spread in successive waves over Assam, and to have even penetrated as far south as the Tippera Hills. Mr. Dundas, lately Subdivisional Officer of North Cachar, reports that an old prayer is still in use amongst the Dimasa which refers to a huge *pepul* tree growing near the confluence of the Dilao (Brahmaputra) and the Sagi. It was here, according to the prayer, that they were born and increased greatly

in numbers, and from here that they travelled by land and by water to Nilachal, the hill near Gauhati on which the temple of Kamakhya stands. From Nilachal they moved to Halali, and finally settled at Dimapur. Copper-plates which have been recently discovered, and which are ascribed to the tenth and eleventh centuries A.D., state that the descendants of Narak, one of the earliest kings of Kamarupa, were overthrown by Cala Stambha, a Mleccha or foreign conqueror. Cala Stambha was succeeded by twenty other foreign kings, and the line of Narak was then restored in the person of Brahma Pala.* It thus seems possible that the Dimasa may for a time have ruled at Gauhati, and may have been driven from there eastwards into the valley of the Dhansiri. When the Ahoms entered the Assam Valley in 1228 A.D., the Dimasa occupied the western part of Sibsagar, and a considerable part of Nowgong in addition to the valleys of the Kapili and the Dhansiri.

Wars between Kacharis and Ahoms. The first collision between the Kacharis and the Ahoms is said to have taken place in 1490 A.D., on the banks of the Dikho river.† The Kacharis were victorious and killed 120 of the enemy, and the Ahoms offered a girl, two elephants, and twelve slaves to induce them to make peace. In 1524, the Kacharis again raided into Ahom territory, but were repulsed, and the Kachari Raja gave his sister in marriage to the Ahom king. There was little loss of life on this occasion, but an expeditionary force sent up the Dhansiri two years later

* *Vide* J.A.S.B., Vol. LXVII, Pt. I, No. 1, 1898, p. 99.

† The story of the Ahom and Kachari wars has been taken from the Ahom *buranjis*, translations of which will be found in the Office of the Superintendent of Ethnography.

succeeded in killing upwards of 1,700 of the Kacharis. In 1530, Detsung, the Kachari Raja, is said to have offered his sister in marriage to the Ahom king, and to have sent with her as dowery an elephant, 500 swords and cloths, 1,000 napkins, 100 doolies, and Rs. 1,000 in cash; but it was evident that there could be no permanent peace with such an aggressive neighbour. In 1536, hostilities again broke out. Detsung was defeated and his capital was sacked, and the Kacharis were shorn of all their possessions in the valley of the Dhansiri, and north of the Kalang in Nowgong.

Migration to Maibang.

Raiding parties continued to be sent into the Kachari country, and it was probably about this time that the king decided to abandon Dimapur, and moved his capital south-west to Maibang on the Mahur river, in the hope that the Ahoms would be unable to follow him through the jungle-covered hills to his new abode. The remains of brick ruins, rock sculptures, and dense groves of bamboos show that Maibang must once have been a thriving place, but the Raja was wrong in supposing that he had passed beyond the sphere of Ahom influence. In 1706, Rudra Singh, one of the most powerful of their princes, despatched an expedition into the hills. The army numbered no less than 37,500 men, and the Kacharis were unable to withstand the attacks of such a powerful force. Maibang was taken and sacked, the spoil including a brass cannon, 700 flint guns, 240 maunds of sulphur, 140 iron shields, 6 large copper drums and 4 tusks.

Migration to Cachar Plains.

The Kachari Raja fled southwards to Khaspur, and, hearing that the Ahom troops had suffered severely

from sickness during the rains, applied to the Jaintia Raja for help to recover his lost territory. The latter prince persuaded the unfortunate monarch to proceed to Bikrampur, where he met the prime minister of the Jaintia State. He was then induced to advance to the Barak, and to enter a boat in which the Jaintia king was said to be reposing. Needless to say there was no such person there, and the Kachari prince was made captive and removed to Jaintiapur. Both he and the members of his family were treated with scant courtesy, and the Jaintia king proclaimed himself sovereign of the Kachari country. Means were, however, found of applying to the Ahom king for help, which was not refused. A strong force was sent through both the North Cachar and Jaintia Hills, which captured both the princes and conveyed them to the Brahmaputra Valley. The list of spoil obtained, if it is correct, shews that the Kachari king must have been a person of some wealth and power. It included 3 large cannons, 2,273 large and small guns, 12,000 pieces of silver, 143 gold embroidered coats, 68 elephants, and 11 Turkey horses. The opportunity was also taken of removing back to Assam some 1,600 persons who had fled into the hills at the time of the Koch and Muhammadan invasions, or had been kidnapped by the Kacharis. The two captive princes were kindly treated by the Ahoms. The Kachari king was stationed near Bishnath, and was finally sent back to his own country, with ten elephants, and a supply of guns, gun-powder, and other implements of war. He took up his abode at Khaspur, but shortly afterwards was attacked by a mortal disease, and though the Ahom king sent three physicians

across the hills to prescribe for his sick friend, be breathed his last in 1708 A.D.

Kacharis subject to Ahoms.

He was succeeded by his minor son, who on his accession sent a horse, a string of pearls, and a locket to his suzerain. When dismissing the envoys who had brought these gifts, the Ahom king, according to the old chroniclers, gave the following summary of the relations between the two states:—

"The previous rulers of Cachar were under our protection and paid us tribute. The father of Suradarpa, the present prince, forgot this fact and had to pay the penalty of his forgetfulness. I take this opportunity of reminding his son that he must be both faithful and loyal, and must punctually submit reports to a Borborua who has been posted at Raha to hear all complaints from the Kachari kingdom. These reports will be sent on to me, and I shall pass such orders as seem fit."

Other versions of migration to the plains.

Mr. Soppitt gives 1750 as the year in which the Kacharis migrated to the plains of Cachar, and states that it took place in the reign of Suradarpa's successor Dharmadwaj, or even in that of the next prince Kartik Chandra.* Two reasons are assigned for this migration: one that Dharmadwaj had married the daughter of the Raja of Hill Tippera and had received the upper valley of the Barak as her dowery; the other that the Kacharis were attacked by the Jaintia Raja on the west. The account given in the Ahom chronicles seems to be the more plausible. It was only natural that the Raja, having been once driven to the plains by the Ahoms, should remain there in preference to returning to Maibang, to a palace which had been destroyed, and to a town that had been sacked. Aggressions from Jaintia would seem

* An historical and descriptive account of the Kachari Tribes in the North Cachar Hills, by C. A Soppitt, Shillong Secretariat Press, 1885, page 4.

to be a very inadequate reason for moving into a portion of the Surma Valley which adjoins the Jaintia Parganas, and which is eminently accessible from Jaintiapur. Mr. Soppit is inclined to doubt the story of the Cachar Plains having formed part of the dowery of a Tippera princess; and if they did, the Tipperas seem to have soon required their own again. In 1757, envoys from the Kachari Government came to the Ahom king and complained that the Tipperas were devastating their territory; the Raja had fled to Mekheli, his uncle to Maibang, and the officers and nobles had taken refuge in the jungle. Cachar was a tributary state, and as such should be protected against invasion from without. An expedition, so the Ahom chronicles says, was despatched; but very little was done, and the Tipperas no doubt retired in their own good time.

The 18th Century. Approach of British. Conversion to Hinduism.

Little is known of the history of Cachar during the eighteenth century. The section of the Kachari tribe that moved into the Surma Valley or remained in the hills of North Cachar was numerically small, and, in 1901, there were only 8,708 Kacharis in the hills and 4,152 in the plains of the district. Settlers moved across the border from Sylhet, and refugees poured into the state from Manipur; but even in 1835 the total population of the Cachar Plains was only estimated at 50,000 souls.* The Kachari Raja seems in fact to have sunk to the position of the petty ruler of an unimportant tribe, living in a remote and jungly tract. The first connection of the British with the district dates from 1762, when Mr.

* Report on the Eastern Frontier of British India, by Captain Pemberton, Calcutta, 1835, page 199.

Verelst marched from Chittagong with five companies of foot, to assist the Manipur Raja who had been driven from his throne by the Burmese. They reached Khaspur and remained there for nearly a year, but were prevented by the difficulties of the country from going further, and were finally recalled. The next historical event of importance was the formal conversion of the Raja Krishna Chandra to Hinduism in 1790 A.D. He and his brother Gobind Chandra were placed inside the body of a large copper cow, and thence produced by the Brahmans who declared them to be Hindus and Kshattriyas, and to be the descendants of a union between Bhima, the hero of the Mahabharata, and a rakshashi whom he espoused in the Nambar forest. The people followed the example of their prince, and nearly all the Kacharis in the district now describe themselves as Hindus. A list of the Kachari kings will be found on page 403 of the second volume of Hunter's Statistical Account of Assam, but all except the last few names are merely the inventions of the Brahmans.

Invasion of Cachar from Manipur.

In 1809, Krishna Chandra, who was Raja at that time, allowed himself to be entangled in the web of intrigue that has always surrounded the throne of Manipur, with results that were fatal to his own small principality. Madu Chandra, the Raja of Manipur, had been driven from his throne by his two brothers Charjit and Marjit. He applied to the Kachari Raja for aid, which was afforded him, but was killed in the attempt to regain his crown. Charjit and Marjit then fell out, and Marjit was compelled to retire to Cachar, taking with him a hockey pony of quite exceptional

excellence. Gobind Chandra, the brother of the Kachari Raja, was siezed with a strong desire to possess this pony, and when his offers to purchase were refused, took possession of the animal by force, in defiance of the wishes of the owner. Marjit left Cachar in anger and applied to Burma for assistance, and, with the aid of the Burmese, drove his two brothers Charjit and Gambhir Singh from Manipur in 1812 A.D. Charjit took refuge in the Jaintia Hills, and, when Marjit invaded Cachar in 1818, he came to the assistance of Gobind Chandra. Marjit was compelled to retire, but Charjit and Gambhir Singh remained in possession of the greater part of the Cachar plains. In 1819, Marjit was driven by the Burmese from Manipur, and took up his quarters in the Hailakandi valley.

Restoration and death of Gobind Chandra.

The Burmese then expressed the intention of adding Cachar to their dominions, but the British Government were unable to acqueisce in the suggestion that such a powerful nation should extend its territories right up to the frontiers of Sylhet. Negotiations were entered into with the Manipuri usurpers, but Gambhir Singh, thinking that he would be able to protect his territories from invasion without the assistance of the British, refused to entangle himself in an alliance which might afterwards prove fatal to his independence.

The British Government then turned to Gobind Chandra, expelled the Burmese, and seated him once more upon the throne. In return for this assistance he was required to pay an annual tribute of Rs. 10,000, which must have proved a somewhat heavy drain upon the resources of the country. The Raja took up his

abode at Haritikar, but in 1830 he was assassinated by the orders of the Manipuri Raja Gambhir Singh.* In the absence of natural heirs his territory lapsed to the British, under the terms of an agreement executed in 1826. The district was formally annexed by proclamation on August 14th, 1832.

Native system of Administration.

The following account of the Kachari system of administration is reproduced from the Statistical Account of Cachar by Sir W. W. Hunter :—

" From their arrival at Kashpur the distinct history of Cachar commences. Numerous colonies of Bengalis, who came up the Barak valley from Sylhet, had meanwhile planted their first settlements on the northern side of the river, shortly after passing the Sylhet frontier. It is supposed that Musalman Bengalis also migrated into Cachar about the same time. At first the new-comers seem to have simply cleared land as stray settlers, paying rent to the Cachari Raja. By degrees, as they became stronger, they obtained from the prince a sort of constitution, which protected them from interference on the part of Cachari tax-gatherers and court officials. Thus, when the British took possession of the District in 1830, they found two distinct systems of administration in existence. One of these, dealing with the Cachari subjects, consisted of a long gradation of officials, who held appointments which would have involved a minute control over the subjects, but for the circumstance that there were hardly any subjects to control. The only people subject to their immediate authority were the uncivilised hill tribes of Parbattias, Cacharis, Kukis, Nagas, etc. Among these officers were a Bara Bandari (chief law-man), with a large establishment of subordinate law-men ; a Senapati or general, with a number of superior officers, not quite so titular as the law-men; also a religious establishment of Cachari Barmans, to perform sacrifices for the health of the king and the safety of the people. These sacrifices were handed down from primitive

* Mr. Ware Edgar in the Dacca Blue Book (page 358) states that the Manipur Raja was responsible for the assassination. Mr. Soppitt (page 9) attributes the murder to Gumar Singh, at one time general of the Kachari troops, who quarrelled with the Raja and fled to Manipur, where he organized a raid.

times, and could only be performed by the descendants of the native Cachari priests. Among them was a human sacrifice for the Raja, celebrated on certain great occasions.

Hindu Agricultural Communities.—The Bengalis, on the other hand, were almost independent of these officers. Their great aim here, as elsewhere, was to keep themselves a peculiar people. They sought only for as much influence at court as would secure them from interference. They had a constitution of their own, based on a revenue system now peculiar to Cachar, which is perhaps a vestige of the once great Cachari kingdom. The fundamental principle of this system was the holding of land by a number of persons connected by voluntary association. The unit of the system was the *khel*. Just as in Hindu communities the village forms the basis of the agricultural commonwealth, which is bound together, theoretically or practically, by ties of kindred and caste, so the *khel* formed the unit of the agricultural community of Cachar, but its members were not connected by any ties of kindred, caste, nationality, or creed. From the first, Musalmans and Hindus are found side by side in the same *khel*; and now that this principle of voluntary association has extended to other enterprises, no bar of race or creed is opposed to the admission of any part of the population. Thus there are instances of associations for leasing fisheries or catching elephants, which include not only Bengalis of every caste and creed, but Kukis, Nagas, and even Europeans. When the Manipuris began to settle in Cachar, they were at first inclined to be exclusive, and to associate in taking land only with their own race. But since our accession they have fallen into the general scheme, and now a Manipuri often takes a lease along with a Musalman or a Hindu, to the exclusion of a man of his own race, who may be objectionable on account of his temper or character. The principle of association is, therefore, purely commercial. It is a voluntary copartnership of a number of persons for the purpose of carrying on a specified undertaking, acknowledging no other nexus except community of interest. This nexus does not even extend to community of capital or of profits, for as soon as the common lease is obtained, the land is divided by the partners amongst themselves, and each sets up for himself on his own allotment. * * * * * * But although the nexus was weak as between the individual sharers, it was absolutely inseparable as regards their obligations to the ruling power. These obligations consisted in, firstly, the payment of the revenue, and, secondly, the discharge of certain customary services. The latter included the supply of labour for the Raja's works, and of necessaries to him on his progress. * * *

* * * The first common obligation, that of paying the rent, still remains.* This was originally done by means of an agent (*mukhtar*) appointed by the sharers and confirmed by the sovereign. He was generally the leading man and principal sharer in the corporation, and seems to have been primarily responsible to the Raja for the rent. That is to say, if he came up to court with a deficient payment and a lame excuse, he was the man on whom the royal wrath fell, and who was squeezed in the first instance, before steps were taken against the corporation.

In course of time, as the number of *khels* increased, groups of adjacent *khels* were joined together into larger unions, marking the second stage in the development of the principle of voluntary association in the Cachar revenue system. The larger union was called a *raj*; and as each *khel* had been represented at court by its principal sharer as agent, so each *raj* elected the principal man in it, or the head man of the chief *khel*, as its own representative. In both cases the Raja's approval was required, and a title seems usually to have been conferred on the officer who represented the *raj*. These titles were of Bengali origin. The representative of the larger union was entitled either *chaudhari*, *mazumdar*, *lashkar*, *bara-bhuiya*, or *chhota-bhuiya*, according to his social status, and the comparative importance of the union he represented. Of these titles, the only one requiring notice is *lashkar*, which extends far up into the Garo Hills, where the head-men of agricultural villages are called by the same name. These titles originally clung to the land and its representatives, but before we obtained possession of the country they had become transferable at a fixed scale of prices. The title of *chaudhari* fetched £10; that of *mazumdar*, £8; that of *lashkar*, £6; *bara-bhuiya*, £5; and *chhota-bhuiya*, probably £4. The titles were hereditary, and descended to all the sons and their descendants. By degrees the unions began to separate into classes. Those that paid their whole rent to the Raja were called *khelma*, and their representative *khelma lashkar*, or *khelma chaudhari*. The general process was, that the sharers in each guild or *khel* paid their portion of the rent to the *khel-mukhtar* or agent. Each *khel-mukhtar* paid the total rent of his *khel* to the *raj-mukhtar*, who in his turn paid it to the Raja at the royal residence. The office of *mukhtar* or agent was theoretically elective, and at first no doubt the holders of it were actually elected. By degrees,

* The copartnerships were broken up at the last settlement and individual leases issued.

however, the office became hereditary, either the eldest son or next male relative succeeding with more or less show of election.

By the development of this system, the Bengalis practically obtained a constitution, which in quiet times was sufficient to preserve them from all interference on the part of the royal officers. In the first place, it secured them from the visits of the revenue officials. Once the lease was given, and the *khel* or agricultural guild was established, the sharers had an elective organization of their own for collecting the rent and for depositing it in the royal treasury. As their representatives were primarily responsible in their persons for the rent, and no doubt were often imprisoned, or otherwise made to appease the royal indignation, in case of default, they probably assumed petty powers, judicial and fiscal, with a view to providing against the contingency of default, and of forcing the individual guildsmen to pay up their shares. At all events, the fact remains that they did acquire such powers, and at the date of the British occupation they appear in the light of an unpaid magistracy, with fiscal and communal powers. All were alike subject to the sovereign, and each derived his title from him. But the fiscal gradation of guild representation was carried into the unpaid magisterial service, the guild representative being inferior in his criminal functions to the union representative, if indeed he had any acknowledged and properly conferred powers at all. At the head of all was the League Representative of Bikrampur, the first Hindu subject of the Cachari Raja. As the insignia of his office, a whip was bestowed on him by his sovereign, and he exercised an indistinct sort of primacy among the other union representatives. The king retained his judicial prerogative in all heinous offences, such as murder; and there seems to be some probability that the *bara bandari* (Cachari chief law-man), the *raj pandit* (Hindu spiritual guide to the king), and the *bara mazumdar* (principal union representative) sat as a sort of judicial committee to advise the Raja in capital cases where a Bengali was concerned. The fact that the Hindu civil code depended upon the Sastras, and the Musalman code on the Kuran, of both of which the Cachari Raja was equally ignorant, forced the immigrants to depend on some voluntary organization for settling their internal disputes, and their head-men were thus entrusted with certain fiscal and criminal powers. These criminal powers depended upon the representative status of the league heads, and not upon the title conferred by the Raja. Thus, the chief criminal power was vested not in a *chaudhari*, but in the *mazumdar* of Bikrampur, who became *bara mazumdar*, and as such above all the *chaudharis* in the

State. While the fiscal and criminal administration was thus provided for with the minimum of royal interference, civil disputes were settled without any inteference whatever. In case of a difference between the sharers of a *khel*, the matter was referred to the *khel-mukhtar*, who probably took the advice of the elders on the subject; if he could not settle the dispute, the question was referred to the *raj-mukhtar* or union representative. In disputes between *khels*, the court of the first instance was the League Head, who, with the assistance of a council selected from the different *khels* within his *raj*, heard and decided the case. It is not clear whether any legal organization existed for enforcing such decrees; but the fiscal and criminal powers of the *raj-mukhtar* gave him a large and loose authority, and, as a matter of fact, his decree was enforced by the imprisonment of any person who delayed to obey. In difficult or keenly-contested cases, an appeal or reference could be made to the Raja. In such cases the sovereign consulted the *raj pandit* if the parties were Hindus, and that officer repeated the Sastras and laid down the law. In Musalman cases the Raja consulted with whoever was the chief acknowledged exponent, for the time being, of the Kuran. Stories are still current how, when a Hindu case came up, the Raja asked his *pandit* what the sacred texts said. The *pandit* declared them. The Raja answered, 'It is just,' made due obeisance to the *pandit*, gave him a present, and decided the case.

Pemberton's description of Cachar.

Pemberton, writing in 1835 shortly after the annexation of the district, describes the plains of Cachar as a fertile tract with great possibilities, which suffered from a want of population, and from the disturbances that had occurred at the begining of the nineteenth century. South of the Barak there were, according to Captain Fisher's estimate,* 1,711 square miles of the finest plain, almost wholly unoccupied, though the sites of numerous villages, which were densely inhabited during the reign of Krishna Chandra, were still discernible along the river banks. North of the river cultivation soon revived on

* Report on the Eastern Frontier of British India, by Captain Pemberton, page 193.

of jungle. Tooluram Senaputtee, an infirm old man, was clothed in the meanest cotton garb, and looked more like a skeleton than a living being."*

Tula Ram's territory is said to have covered an area of about 2,160 square miles, but to have contained only about about 5,200 persons, who could not have paid a revenue of more than Rs. 1,000.

Development of the Cachar plains. Under British rule there has been a great expansion of the population, and the plains, which in Captain Fisher's time were one vast expanse of jungle, have now been peopled almost to the limit of their capacity. Pemberton in 1835 estimated their population at some 50,000;† in 1901 it was nearly 415,000. This great development has been due to natural increase, to the existence of the tea industry, which has brought thousands of coolies from other parts of India, and to immigration from the densely peopled district of Sylhet.

The history of the district since it came under British administration has been one of peaceful progress, and there is little for the historian to record. The mutineers from Chittagong were, however, defeated here in 1857, the Lushais were for many years a source of trouble on the southern frontier, and several Europeans lost their lives under circumstances which aroused considerable excitement at the time.

Destruction of mutineers in 1857-58. At the end of 1857, a party of the Chittagong mutineers succeeded in making their way through Sylhet into the district, with the object of proceeding into Manipur. They were met by a detatchment of the

* Travels and Adventures in the Province of Assam, by Major John Butler London. Smith Elder & Co., 1855, page 16.

† Page 199.

Sylhet Light Infantry, which inflicted considerable loss upon them in the several engagements that took place. The mutineers were driven into the jungle where they were hunted down by Kukis, or died of starvation, and it is believed that out of the three companies that left Chittagong not more than three or four individuals escaped death or capture.

Sambhudan's rising in 1882.

In 1882, a curious outbreak occurred which resulted in the death of the district officer. The incident is thus described by Sir W. W. Hunter:—

"A man named Sambhudan, who had set up as a worker of miraculous cures, and as a directly inspired agent of the deity, gathered together a small body of followers, and took up his residence at Maibang, where he lived at free quarters on the forced contributions of his neighbours, and became the terror of the country-side. The Deputy Commissioner proceeded to Maibang with a force of armed police, but on his arrival found the place deserted. Meanwhile Sambhudan with twenty followers had proceeded to Gunjong, the headquarters of the North Cachar Subdivision, about six hours' journey from Maibang, and burnt the place; killing two servants and a policeman. They then returned to Maibang, where Major Boyd and his little force had encamped for the night, and attacked him at daybreak the following morning, the deluded marauders having been persuaded that Sambhudan's magical spells had rendered them invulnerable to bullets. The attack was easily repulsed, and eight or nine Cacharis were killed. Major Boyd, however, received a severe cut in the hand from a dao or hatchet, which being unskilfully treated in the absence of proper medical assistance, resulted in his death from tetanus in a few days. Sambhudan evaded capture for a time, but his hiding-place was afterwards discovered. In attempting to escape from the cordon of police which surrounded him, he received a wound in the leg, from the effects of which he bled to death. A man named Man Singh, who acted as a sort of high priest to Sambhudan, was sentenced to transportation for life."

Frontier troubles.

Bounded as it is both on the north and south by hills inhabited by wild tribes, Cachar has suffered more

than once from the incursions of these savages. In 1835, Pemberton reported that the southern portion of the district had been abandoned in consequence of outrages committed by raiding parties from the Lushai Hills, and that Captain Fisher was establishing Manipuri villages in this locality, as they were accustomed to dealing with those savages.*

The Lushai raid of 1849.

The first raid on record is that of 1849 when the Lushais attacked a Kuki village ten miles south of Cachar, killing 29 persons, and making 42 prisoners. In the following year an expedition was sent under Colonel Lister into the hills, which burnt a village and then retired. The protection of the frontier continued to be a source of much anxiety to the district officers and steps were taken to raise a Kuki company.

The Lushai raid of 1869.

The Lushais continued to raid upon the plains, but Cachar itself escaped from their visitations till 1869, when they burnt the garden of Loharbund and made an attack upon Maniarkhal. An expedition was despatched into the hills, but the difficulties of the country and the inclemency of the weather were such that it returned without accomplishing anything of note. In December 1869, Mr. Edgar, the Deputy Commissioner, made a tour into the Lushai Hills, and it was hoped that he had succeeded in placing our relations with the hillmen on a more satisfactory footing. These expectations were, however, doomed to disappointment, and in less than twelve months after his return, our troublesome neighbours once more made their presence felt.

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* Page 193.

The Lushai raid of 1871

In January 1871, the Kachari village of Ainakhal in the south of the Hailakandi valley was attacked, and 25 persons were killed and 37 taken prisoner. The Alexandrapur tea garden was destroyed, and, though the proprietor Mr. Sellar succeeded in making his escape, Mr. Winchester, a neighbouring planter who was breakfasting with him, was killed, and his little daughter taken prisoner. A few hours later an attack was made on the neighbouring garden of Katlichara, but the raiders were driven off from the bungalow and the lines, though they succeeded in killing five coolies and wounding others. The attack was renewed on the following day but the Lushais were again beaten off. Three days later Maniarkhal, which is situated on the Sonai near the eastern frontier of the district, was attacked. The defenders were relieved by a party of sepoys and police under the District Superintendent of Police, and on the second day the Lushais were driven off with a loss, it is said, of 57 men. While the attack on Maniarkhal was going on, another party of these savages raided the gardens of Darmiakhal and Nagdigram, killing eleven persons on the latter estate and capturing three prisoners. On the following day the rear guard of a party of troops and police, who had been sent to the relief of Maniarkhal, were attacked near Nagdigram. The men stood their ground with coolness and determination, and gave time to the convoy whom they were escorting to escape. Eventually they were overpowered and six out of eight sepoys killed. The last raid was made towards the end of February, on the Jhalnachara garden. The Lushais were repulsed, but not before

they had killed four persons and wounded three. In the following November, a strong military force was sent into the hills. This expedition was completely successful in procuring the submission of the chiefs and satisfaction for the outrages, and twenty years elapsed before another raid was made upon the plains. In 1890, after the great expedition of the previous year, stockades were built at Aijal and Changsil, and a Political Officer was stationed in the Lushai Hills. Captain Browne, the first officer gazetted to this appointment, was, however, killed in September 1890, and the hillmen rose and attacked the two stockades. Mr. McCabe was appointed to succeed Captain Browne, and in 1891 suitable punishment was meted out to the offending chiefs. It was thought that the tribes were gradually settling down under our rule, but in February 1892, they suddenly rose and attacked Mr. McCabe. The Political Officer had no difficulty in holding his own, till the arrival of reinforcements enabled him to act on the offensive; but in April, a party of Lushais, with the evident intention of creating a diversion, raided the garden of Barunchara. They burnt five houses in the lines and killed 42 coolies, some of whom were terribly mutilated, and then withdrew into their jungle-covered hills. The Lushai Hills have now been pacified, and since 1892 there have been no incursions into the district of Cachar. A full account of the Lushais and their raids up to 1882 will be found in the North-East Frontier of Bengal by Mr. (afterwards Sir) Alexander Mackenzie. For the history of the tribe subsequent to that date, reference should be made to the Gazetteer of the Lushai Hills.

Murders at Baladhan.

The villages of the more savage of the Naga tribes lie considerably to the north-east of Cachar, and only once since our occupation of the district have they ventured to disturb its peace. This was in 1880, when the Khonoma men, who had shortly before killed Mr. Damant, the Political Officer of the Naga Hills district, were being beleaguered by our troops. A party of raiders made their way from Khonoma to Baladhan, a garden more than eighty miles away in the north-east corner of the Cachar Plains, and killed the manager Mr. Blyth, and 16 or 17 of his coolies. The same garden earned an unenviable notoriety in 1893, when the bungalow was broken into, the chaukidar and the manager murdered, a woman who lived in the house mortally wounded, and the contents of the safe removed. Six Manipuris and one Gurkha were finally sent up for trial before the Sessions Judge, who convicted all the prisoners, and sentenced four to death and three to transportation for life. On appeal they were acquitted by the High Court, but His Excellency in Council recorded the opinion that, after perusing the papers submitted, he was unable to say that there were no grounds for the opinion expressed by the Chief Commissioner that the acquitted Manipuris were most probably the persons concerned in this atrocious crime. The case aroused much interest at the time, and a question was asked in Parliament with regard to certain irregularities which were said to have taken place in the course of the police investigation, the magisterial enquiry, and the trial in the sessions court. Further enquiries which were made into the matter tended to exonerate the officers concerned.

PUNJAB, CIVIL SECRETARIAT * LAHORE

Murder of a railway engineer in 1898.

In 1898, some alarm was caused in the North Cachar Hills by the murder of Mr. Wilde, an executive engineer, who was engaged on the construction of the railway. Mr. Wilde was riding along a narrow part of the road when he met two Pathan contractors with a third man of lower rank mounted on ponies. He called on them to move aside and let him pass, and, when they refused to do so, there was a violent altercation and some jostling. One of the Pathan contractors was hustled off his pony, and the other then drew his knife and attacked the engineer. Mr. Wilde galloped off, but, after he had gone a short distance, his pony stumbled and threw him, and the Pathan, who had followed in pursuit, again attacked him with his knife. The second contractor then came up, and the two men pushed and dragged their victim into the jungle at the side of the road, where they hacked him to death, the wounds inflicted being of a most brutal character. The whole occurrence was witnessed by a Naga who was working near. The murderers and two other Pathans who were concerned in the outrage were subsequently arrested. One of the murderers committed suicide in jail, the other was sentenced to death and hanged.

Archæology.

Cachar contains few archolæogical remains of any interest. At Maibang there are ruins which are probably the remains of the palace of the Raja, but the walls have been almost entirely demolished, and it is hardly possible to trace even the outline of the building. There are also some fifteen rock sculptures in an indifferent state of preservation, eleven of which represent foot and one a horse soldier, one a horse, one a tiger, and one a

tortoise. A solid rock, the size of a small cottage, has been carved into the outward seeming of a house. At Khaspur, on the river Madhura, there are four temples and two other masonry buildings, but they are of comparatively recent date and possess little architectural merit. At Chandragiri there is a temple with a *lingum* which is still worshipped by the villagers, while at Badarpur there are the remains of an old fort on a rock overhanging the Barak.

CHAPTER III.

POPULATION.

Area and density—Growth of population—Migration—Sex—Marriage—Infirmities—Language—Caste—Religion—The Shahaj Bhajan—Hindu Festivals—Sacred places—Muhammadans—Christianity—Occupations—Hindu marriage ceremonies.

Area and Density.

THE total area of the district in 1901 was 3,769 square miles* and the density was only 121 to the square mile. Cachar is, however, pre-eminently a place in which a general average of this kind is liable to give rise to most erroneous impressions, and, as a matter of fact, the district is by no means sparsely peopled. The section of the Assam Range which has been formed into the North Cachar subdivision only returned a population of 12 to the square mile, after deducting the persons who at the time of the census were engaged on the construction of the Assam-Bengal Railway. But the hills are not capable of supporting a dense population, and, prior to the completion of the railway, the intervening valleys offered but few attractions to the settler.* In the plains, after deducting the area included in the reserved forests which occupy almost the whole of the south-eastern corner of the district, there was a density of 321 to the square mile. A considerable portion of the Katigara thana, which lies between the Barak and the North

* In consequence of the change of boundaries in 1904, the area of the district was reduced to 3,564 square miles.

Cachar Hills, is too low for permanant cultivation, and the density in this area is only 82 to the square mile. If we deduct this tract in addition to the area occupied by reserved forests, it appears that in the remainder of the plains, which cover an area of 697 square miles, the density in 1901 was as much as 515 to the square mile, a figure which for an almost purely rural population must be considered high.

Growth of population.

There seems little doubt that, prior to our occupation of the country, the population was extremely sparse. Reference has been already made to Pemberton's estimate of 50,000 souls as the population of the plains. In 1855, a rough census was taken which gave a total of 85,000 inhabitants.† This estimate was apparently too low, and ten years later Mr. Edgar calculated that, including the coolies who had been imported in considerable numbers since that date, the total population was about 152,000 souls. The first regular census was taken in 1872, and the abstract in the margin shows the population returned at that and at each successive census, and the percentage of increase in

Cachar Plains.

	Population.	Percentage Variation.
1872 ...	205,027	......
1881 ...	293,738	+43·3
1891 ...	367,542	+25·1
1901 ...	414,781	+12·8

Cachar Hills.

	Population.	Percentage Variation.
1872 ...	30,000 (est.)	......
1881 ...	20,120	......
1891 ...	18,941	−5·8
1901 ...	40,812‡	+115·4

* The hills if carved out into terraces after the fashion adopted by the Angami Nagas could support a much denser population than 12 to the square mile. The indigenous population is, however, small, and these low hills with their intervening valleys would probably prove very unhealthy to foreign immigrants.

† Dacca Blue Book, page 328.

‡ Includes 20,324 persons engaged on the construction of the railway.

each decade. Separate figures are given for the hills and plains as the conditions prevailing in these two areas are entirely different.

At first sight it looks as though the census of 1872 must have been far from accurate, but though no doubt it was not complete, its errors were less serious than one might be tempted to suppose. Immigration was proceeding vigorously at this period, and in 1881 it was calculated that only 18·6 per cent. of the gross increase that had occurred since the preceding census, was due to natural growth. This was less than the natural increase in the district, as a whole, during the next decade, which was said to be as much as 18·2 per cent. The bulk of the increase between 1891 and 1901 was due to the excess of births over deaths, and the number of people born and censused in the plains increased by 15·5 per cent. A considerable proportion of this increase was no doubt due to the offspring of females born outside the Province, of whom there were more than 42,000 in Cachar in 1891. The general result is eminently satisfactory. A century ago the eastern end of the Surma Valley was very sparsely peopled, but the population has grown with remarkable rapidity, and outside the reserved forests there is little land remaining in the plains available for settlement. The population of the hills is small, and is very nearly stationary, the number of persons enumerated there in 1901, excluding the temporary visitors working on the railway, being only a few hundreds more than the population of twenty years before. The following statement shows the growth by subdivision during the last two decades:—

	Population. 1901.	Percentage variation. 1891-1901.	1881-1891.
Silchar	... 301,884	+12·7	+26·3
Hailakandi	... 112,897	+13·0	+21·9
North Cachar (excluding railway)	20,490	+8·0	-5·8

Migration. 101,252 persons, or 24 per cent. of the population of the plains in 1901, had been born outside the Province. The great majority of these persons are coolies, and about three-fifths of the total came from the neighbouring Province of Bengal; Manbhum, Hazaribagh, Bankura, and Ranchi being the districts most strongly represented. There were also a large number of immigrants from the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, half of whom came from Ghazipur and one-fourth from Azamgarh, and over 12,000 from the Central Provinces. Apart from the garden cooly and the Bengali trader, the number of immigrants is not large. There were a few Kabuli traders, a class that earned an unenviable notoriety in the Kalachara dacoity of 1904, a few Nepalese, and a few traders from Rajputana and Ajmer-Merwara. In North Cachar no less than 40 per cent. of the population in 1901 had been born outside the Province, but they were merely temporary visitors engaged on the construction of the railway, and have long since left the district. Cachar, as a whole, gains largely by interdistrict migration. In 1901, it received 28,988 persons and sent out 7,259 emigrants, the net gain being 21,729. The majority of emigrants go to Sylhet and the Naga Hills and are probably cultivators who move their homes across the district boundary. The same presumably holds good of the

immigrants, the great majority of whom come from the neighbouring district of Sylhet (25,971), and the State of Manipur. The number of people born in Sylhet and censused in Cachar only increased by 2,259 during the last decade, but this does not represent the total amount of immigration that has taken place. Assuming that the death-rate amongst Sylhettis settled in Cachar in 1891 has been 40 per mille per annum, it would have required the transfer of 8,500 people merely to keep the figures at the level of that year. For further details on the subject of birthplace reference should be made to Table V.

Sex. The proportion of women to men in the Cachar Plains has always been low, as will be seen from the following figures showing the number of women to a thousand men at each census since 1872: 1872, 857; 1881, 873; 1891, 891; 1901, 913. This is, however, largely due to the disturbing effect of immigration, and if this factor be eliminated and the proportion calculated on the number of people born in Cachar and censused in the Province, it rises to 1881, 979; 1891, 974; and 1901, 976; a ratio which at the last two enumerations was 14 per mille higher than that prevailing in the plains districts of the Province as a whole. In North Cachar, amongst the indigenous population, the proportion of women very slightly exceeded that of men.

Marriage. The following statement shows the extent to which infant marriage is prevalent in the Cachar Plains, and for the sake of comparison, figures have been added for Goalpara and Nowgong:—

Percentage of girls married and widowed in 1901.

	Age. 0–10	Age. 10–15
Cachar, Hindu	2·3	40·8
" Muhammadan ...	0·6	32·9
Goalpara, Hindu	4·8	62·3
Nowgong "	0·2	10·5

Percentage of girls unmarried.

	Age. 15–20.
Cachar, Hindu	13·3
Muhammadan	9·0
Goalpara, Hindu	7·2
Nowgong "	40·1

Infant marriage is not so common in Cachar as in Goalpara, but this unnatural and unwholesome practice is far more prevalent than it is amongst the Assamese residing in Nowgong. For every Hindu child-wife or widow in the latter district under 10 years old there are 11 in Cachar and 24 in Goalpara, while for every Hindu girl so circumstanced between 10 and 15 in Nowgong there are four in the former and six in the latter district. The effect of fashion can be seen in the tendency amongst the Muhammadans to marry their girls young; though they have not even the traditional excuse put forward by the Hindus for a practice which must be inconvenient to the bridegroom, and is liable to produce the most deplorable effects upon the bride, and her off-spring. The figures for North Cachar would not repay examination, owing to the enormous number of temporary visitors. Amongst the animistic tribes in the hills, girls are hardly ever married before they attain sexual maturity.

The growth of the population largely depends on the proportion borne by the potential mothers to the total. In

this respect the Cachar plains have an advantage over most of the districts in the Province, as 169 per mille of the total population in 1901 were married women between 15 and 40. The corresponding figure for Assam, as a whole, was 157.

Infirmities.

The Cachar Plains are fairly free from the four special infirmities selected for record at the census, blindness, deaf-mutism, insanity and leprosy. In no case did the proportion of afflicted males exceed the proportion for the Province of Assam, though in every case except that of the blind it was largely in excess of the proportion for the Indian Empire. The abstract in the margin shows out of 10,000 males in 1901 the number afflicted in Cachar, in the Province as a whole, and in the Indian Empire.

	Blindness.	Deaf-mutism.	Leprosy.	Insanity.
Cachar Plains ...	8	9	11	5
Assam ...	10	9	13	5
Indian Empire ...	12	6	5	3

Language.

Bengali is the common language of the plains, and in 1901 was returned by 61 per cent. of the population; Hindi by 21 per cent.; and Manipuri by 11 per cent. In the hills the commonest indigenous forms of speech are Dimasa, which belongs to the Bodo group of languages, Rangkhol which belongs to the Kuki group, and Naga. Dimasa or Hills Kachari comes from the same stock as Bodo or Plains Kachari, but Dimasa differs more from Bodo than even Garo does. An account of this language will be found in the Linguistic Survey of India, Volume III, Part II, page 56. For an account of Rangkhol reference should be made to Part III of the same volume of the same work, page 181.

Caste.

The earliest inhabitants of the district seem to have been Kacharis, Manipuris, Muhammadans, and low

caste Hindus from Sylhet. There is in consequence a certain lack of distinction in the Hindu social system of the present day. There are a certain number of Brahmans and Kayasthas, but the bulk of the Hindu population is composed of castes that occupy but a humble position in the Hindu social scale. The one most strongly represented is the Dom Patni, a fishing and boating caste who have largely taken to agriculture. Then come the Manipuris, who, though they style themselves Kshattriyas, are of aboriginal descent, and the Namasudra or Chandal, another fishing and boating caste who also have taken to the plough, but who, like the Dom Patni, come very low down in the Hindu social scale. The Jugis or weavers have settled in strong force in the district, but they have quite abandoned their traditional occupation. From their hands, too, a Brahman is unable to take water, but they are making strenuous efforts to rise in the social scale. The coolie castes most strongly represented are the Bauris, Bhuiyas, Chamars, Mundas, Musahars and Santals. The great trading caste of Sylhet, the Shahas, and the great cultivating caste of that district, the Das, are only represented by a few hundred persons. A description of the origin and subdivisions of the principal Hindu castes found in the district will be found in Mr. Risley's Tribes and Castes of Bengal. The numbers returned under each of the main castes will be found in Table V.

The European population of the district is considerable, and in 1901 amounted to no less than 317 persons, a figure that was only exceeded by Sibsagar and Lakhimpur. Most of these people were living in the *sadr* subdivision.

The Kacharis.

The history of the Kachari tribe has already been set forth at length, and for an account of the manners and customs of the Dimasa, the section of the tribe living in Cachar, the reader cannot do better than refer to Mr. Soppitt's Historical and Descriptive Account of the Kachari Tribes in the North Cachar Hills, which was reprinted, with an introduction by Mr. Baker, in 1901, by the Shillong Secretariat Printing Office.

The Kacharis generally live in the valleys that intersect the hills. The houses in their villages are placed in two lines facing one another, and in the centre there is the young man's club or *nodrang*, which is so common a feature in the villages of the wild tribes of the north-east frontier. The houses are built on the ground, and are divided into three compartments. Men and women alike are fairly tall and muscular. Men wear a waist cloth, shawl, and turban; women wear a petticoat reaching from the waist to the knee, and another cloth to cover the upper portion of the body. The Kacharis in the valleys and the plains portion of the district, grow wet rice; in the hills they follow the shifting system of cultivation known as *jhum*. Two sections of the Kacharis call for special mention. The Barmans are Kacharis who are not only Hindus but have obtained by purchase the right to wear the sacred thread. These Barmans are not a caste or separate section of the tribe, and even the child of a Barman has to pay for his sacred thread, though he is allowed to buy it cheaper than the ordinary Kachari. The Shemsharao are a cross between the Kacharis and the Nagas, whose headquarters are situated in the Shemkor village which overhangs the Langting river. They

are said to be Kacharis who were driven eastward by the Syntengs about the middle of the eighteenth century. They, in their turn, beat back the outlying sections of the Naga tribes and took possession of their women. The language that they speak is pure Kachari, but in physique and face they have a strong touch of the Naga, and they wear Naga and not Kachari clothing.

The Kukis.

The Kukis are divided into four tribes: the Rangkhols with their allied tribe the Betes, and the Jansen with their allied tribe the Thadois.* The Rangkhols and Betes originally lived in the hills now inhabited by the Lushais. Farther south were the villages of the Jansens, who, urged on by one of those strange impulses which have kept the tribes of the north-east frontier in a condition of perpetual unrest, moved northwards into the country of the Rangkhols, and compelled them to fly across the Surma Valley into the hills of North Cachar. Shortly after this exodus the Betes were compelled to follow the Rangkhols, and the Jansens and Thadois were left in occupation of the hills that form the southern boundary of Cachar. The migration of the first band of Kukis, "the old Kukis" as they are sometimes called, is said to have taken place at the end of the eighteenth century.† But the northward movement of the tribes had not yet spent itself, and in course of time the Jansens and the Thadois were themselves driven out of the southern hills, and were compelled

* For a fuller account of the Kukis the reader should refer (a) to a Short Account of the Kuki Lushai Tribes, by Mr. Soppitt, Shillong Secretariat Press, 1887, which is the authority for the description of the tribe which is given in the Gazetteer; and (b) to a Monograph on the Kukis which is at present under preparation.

† Mackenzie's North East-Frontier of Bengal, page 146.

to follow the Rangkhols to their retreat in North Cachar. This second migration of the "new Kukis" took place in 1851-52. Though loosely referred to under the one generic term of Kuki, there is a marked difference between the Rangkhols and the Jansens. The former are a democratic community, and the affairs of the village are managed by a group of village officers, the *galim* or headman, the *gabur* his assistant, and two subordinates, the *chapia galim*, and the *chapia gabur*. These offices are not hereditary, and a candidate for public service has to begin at the bottom of the ladder as a *chapia gabur*. The Jansens on the other hand are ruled by Rajas, whose authority before they moved into British territory was unquestioned. The Raja was supported by a contribution levied from each house and was aided in the administration of the village by a *mantri*. The Kukis generally build their villages on the tops of hills, the houses being placed on either side of a long street. The houses are built on platforms with a veranda in front, and are partitioned off into separate cubicles. The people are short and have sturdy well-developed limbs. They have high cheek bones and flat noses, and the men have often a very effeminate appearance. The Rangkhols work for their wives and are generally required to render three years' service to their father-in-law before marriage, and two after. This excuses them from the bride price which the Jansens generally have to pay, but they in their turn are exempt from any term of service. Like most of the other hillmen they are *jhum* cultivators, and unless they have been to some extent affected by the ideas of their Hindu neighbours,

there are few articles of food which come amiss to them.

Most of the Nagas in Cachar live in the northern subdivisions of the district and belong to the Kaccha Naga tribe. Unlike the Kukis and Kacharis they are not a migratory people, and though they shift their *jhums* every second or third year, they seldom change their village sites. Their houses are built of planks and thatch, the side walls disappearing in the roof, which is brought down from either side of the roof tree almost to the ground. The people are very liberal in their views on the subject of what does or does not constitute human food; and there are few things which to a Naga come amiss, from a rat to an elephant which has been dead some weeks, or from a snake or a puppy to a smoking slice of pork. Like most of the other hill-men they are very partial to rice beer, which they consume in enormous quantities. Child-marriage is unknown, and as long as they remain unwed, girls are allowed the greatest latitude. Once the knot is tied they abandon the amusements of their youth, and girls, who were most prodigal with their favours in their salad days, are seldom unfaithful to their marriage vows. An account of the Naga tribe of North Cachar was published by Mr. Soppitt in 1885 (Shillong Secretariat Press.) **Nagas.**

Classified by religion, the population of the Cachar Plains was distributed at the last census in the following proportions: Hindus 67 per cent., Muhammadans 31 per cent., Animists 2 per cent. The indigenous populations of the Cachar Hills was about equally divided between Animism and Hinduism as nearly all the Kacharis **Religion.**

October there is the Durga puja. This is a time for general merry-making. New clothes are given to the children, members of the family who are away return home, and there is general feasting and jollification. The rich purchase clay images of Durga, Lakshmi, Saraswati, Kartik, and Ganesh. Poorer people make their offerings to plantain trees or earthen jars filled with water and mango leaves. The puja lasts for four days. Goats are usually sacrificed on each of the first three days, and on the third day those who can afford to do so kill a buffalo. On the last day the goddess is worshipped with flowers, leaves and eatables, and then thrown into water amidst singing and beating of cymbals.

Four days after the Durga puja comes the Lakshmi puja, and in the last quarter of the year there are the Kali, Kartik, and Jagadhatri pujas, and the Rashjatra. The last-named festival is only observed by the Vaishnavites and is especially popular with the Manipuris.

A special form of religious ceremony is known as the *noaka* or boat puja and is performed by a wealthy man in satisfaction of a vow, who generally spends from Rs. 300 to Rs. 500 on the ceremony. A shed is built, at the end of which is a boat painted and gilt, from which rise, tier upon tier, the images of various gods, amongst whom Bishahari is generally the most prominent. For several days sacrifices are offered to the deities, and Brahmans, who are well paid and feasted for their services, offer up their prayers. At the end of this time the house and its contents are abandoned and allowed to fall to pieces. Every Hindu has a *guru* or religious teacher,

to whom he makes an annual offering varying from two annas to five rupees according to his means.

The Pous or Uttarayan Sankranti held about the middle of January has no religious associations and corresponds to the Magh bihu of the Assam Valley. The villagers light bonfires in the rice fields, at which they warm themselves after the morning bath, and devote the day to merry-making.

Sacred Places.

Cachar, as is not unnatural, cannot boast of many places which are sacred in the eyes of the Hindus. Lying as it does at the extreme end of the Surma Valley, and peopled, as it must originally have been, by unconverted tribes, there is nothing in its history to connect it with the mythology of Hinduism. In the *sadr* tahsil there are two hills, Tilain and Shamatila, which are sacred to Kali, and one, Sivtila, which is appropriated to the great god Siva, but none of these places are held in much esteem. About 29 miles south-east of Silchar, there is a peak in the Bhuban range, known as Bhuban tila, which is visited by devout Hindus. There are images of Siva and Parbati at this spot, and pilgrims make offerings to these idols, bathe in a pool, and drink from a sacred well in the vicinity. They then enter a cave in the side of the hill which is supposed to possess a certain degree of sanctity. The Siva ratri and the Baruni are the principal occasions on which this hill is visited by the devout. There is also an idol of Siva on the Laklaki tila in the Chatla Haor pargana, to which people have made pilgrimages of recent years. In the Saraspur hills, to the west of the district, there is a place in village Thandupur which is said to have been consecrated by the presence of Kapil

Muni, who lived there in the time of Pura Raja, the father of Gaur Gobind the king of Sylhet who was overthrown by the Muhammadans in 1384 A.D. The principal festivals observed at this place are the Choet Baruni and the Siva ratri. A considerable fair is held at Katigara on the occasion of the Baruni. There is a Kalibari in the Silchar town which was founded by a peshkar of the Deputy Commissioner's office in 1838, and another in village Tarapur in the Barakpur pargana, which was founded in 1871. At Hailakandi also there is a Kalibari of some note.

Muhammadans.

The great bulk of the Muhammadans have moved into the district from Sylhet, and almost all of them are members of the Sunni sect. It is said that the ordinary villager is fairly well acquainted with the principles of his faith, and that it has not been infected with Hindu superstitions to any marked degree, though in the remoter tracts Muhammadans sometimes subscribe to funds started by Brahmans during a smallpox epidemic to promote the worship of the goddess Sitala. There are no mosques of any special sanctity, and prayers are usually said in a thatched hut. The number of people converted to the creed of Islam on religious grounds is said to be extremely small, but men or women, who have become entangled in an intrigue with a Musalman, sometimes change their faith on that account.

Minor Religions.

Brahmos	49
Jains ...	22
Buddhists	23
Sikhs ...	165

The statement in the margin gives details for the other religions that had a comparatively small number of adherents in Cachar, in 1901. Nearly all the Sikhs were found in North Cachar, where they were employed in the service of the Assam-Bengal Railway Company.

There were only 1,040 Christians in Cachar, in 1901, 683 of whom were natives. A branch of the Welsh Presbyterian Mission was established at Silchar about 50 years ago, but in the early seventies the work was given up and was not resumed till 1887. In 1903, there were four missionaries there, three of whom were ladies. The Cachar Plains appear to be a somewhat barren field for missionary enterprise, as the number of native Christians only increased by 178 in the twenty years preceding the last census. Christianity has made practically no progress in the hills. **Christianity.**

Cachar, like the rest of Assam, is a rural area, and in 1901, nearly 89 per cent. of the population of the plains returned agriculture as their means of support. Tea, the only industry of importance in the district, is only a form of agriculture, and other occupations, such as those of the fisherman or potter, are often combined with husbandry. In 1901, the occupations of the people were classified under 520 different heads, and details for the great majority of these heads will be found in Table XV, Part II, of the Census Report. It is, however, doubtful whether these figures would repay examination. A census does not supply data which are suitable for minute classification or admit of profitable examination in detail, and this fact has been recognized, not only in India, but in most of the countries of Europe. The difficulty which is there experienced is greatly increased in a Province like Assam, where little progress has been made in the specialization of function. The proportion of workers to the total population (48 per cent.) is fairly high. This is largely due to the predominance of the tea industry, which finds **Occupation.**

work for men, women, and children alike, as the women-folk of the ordinary cultivator do not work in the fields to the extent which is common in the Assam Valley.

Hindu marriage ceremonies. Most of the Hindus in the plains are married by the *jagya* rite, a ceremony which corresponds to the *hompura* of Assam. The first thing to be done after a match has been agreed upon is to fix the date of the ceremony. The bridegroom's representatives proceed to the house of the bride with fish, sweetmeats, curds and betel-nuts, and, on their arrival, the Brahmans of the village are summoned and asked to discover an auspicious day. The next stage is known as Panakhili, and consists of the offering of betelnuts and leaves, with two small pieces of gold and silver, to the family idol, or to the idol of a neighbour, if neither of the families possesses an idol of its own. Two nights before the wedding day the bridegroom and the bride are solemnly bathed, and on the following morning the general merry-making begins. A party of drummers is called in, who, with short intervals of rest, keep up their unmelodious music day and night, the children of the two families are decked out in their best, the bride and the groom are solemnly bathed, and friends and relatives assemble from all sides. At night a theatrical performance is given in the bridegroom's house, if his means allow of it, and a party is despatched to fetch the bride, for in the Surma Valley the actual ceremony generally takes place in the house of the groom. On this night also the contracting parties are once more solemnly bathed. Early the next morning a priest sprinkles water over them from a mango leaf, and places a daub of an oleaginous black ointment, called

adibash, on their foreheads. During the day the bridegroom and some male relatives on behalf of the bride offer oblations to the spirits of their ancestors, and a feast is given to the Brahmans and the assembled guests. In the evening the contracting parties are again solemnly bathed, and attired in their best clothes, and pending the advent of the bride, who arrives in the middle of the night attended by most unmusical musicians, the groom is allowed to witness the theatrical performance that is going on.

When the time for the actual ceremony arrives he is anointed with sandal wood, a crown of pith and flowers is placed on his head, and he is escorted to the front of the main house where a maid or married woman presents him with a ring, a pair of cloths, and some curds. Both parties then enter a small enclosure in the courtyard which has been fenced in with split bamboos and plantain trees, the groom is seated on a stool, and the bride marches round him seven times, throwing flowers and a red powder over him as she completes each circuit. The next stage is called *sampradan*, and is really the binding part of the ceremony, when the girl and her dowry are formally handed over to her husband. A fire is then lighted, flowers, rice, and *ghi* are thrown into it, and the priest utters the appropriate *mantras*. The young pair, who by this time must be thoroughly worn out, are then allowed to retire to rest for the remainder of the night. On the following day they are again solemnly bathed, and are conducted round four bamboos in the courtyard, and a feast is given to the assembled guests. This ceremony is repeated on the fourth day, as on the

intervening day the young couple are not allowed to see one another, and the marriage is then said to be complete.

Lesser marriage rites.

Where widow marriage or the marriage of a divorced woman is permitted, the services of a priest are not required, and the ceremony consists of little more than a feast to the friends and the relations. A wedding by the *jagya* rite costs from Rs. 50 to Rs. 300, the bulk of this expenditure being incurred on the provision of food, clothing, ornaments, and fireworks, and the payment of Brahmans and musicians. A widow marriage costs from Rs. 10 to Rs. 70. The lower caste Hindus, who form the great mass of the Hindu population, and the Muhammadans, usually pay money for their brides, the price ranging from Rs. 10 to Rs. 200. The latter is probably a fancy figure, and Rs. 40 or Rs. 50 is generally enough to satisfy the demands of the bride's parents. The bridegroom usually takes his wife to his own home, but occasionally takes up his abode in the house of his father-in-law.

Amusements.

The ordinary amusments of the people are chess, dice, and cards, and the women of the lower castes take part in dances known as *gopini kirton*. Singing and a rude form of music are a constant source of pleasure, and in places there are simple theatrical performances. In their own home the Manipuris are devoted to the national game of hockey on horseback, which is simply polo on small ponies, played with seven aside, with no goal posts, and with a disregard of the rules which are necessary in the interests of safety where bigger ponies are employed. In Cachar they seldom have an opportunity of playing polo, and have to content themselves with hockey on foot.

CHAPTER IV.

AGRICULTURE AND FORESTS.

Crops grown—Rice—Mustard—Fibres—Agricultural implements—Sugarcane—Cultivation in the hills—Causes affecting productiveness of land—Garden crops—Yield and value of crops—Live stock—Grazing—Cattle disease—Tea—Development of industry—Labour supply—Varieties of plant—System of cultivation—System of manufacture—Outturn and prices—Green tea—Forests—The reserves—Timber trees—System of management—Timber trade—List of reserved forests.

THE staple crops of the Cachar Plains are rice, which in 1903-04 covered 66 per cent. of the total cropped area; tea 19 per cent.; oil seeds 5 per cent.; other food grains including pulse 1 per cent.; and sugarcane 2 per cent. Wheat, barely, gram, and maize are only cultivated in small patches, generally by foreigners. The manner in which the staple crops are raised is described in the following paragraphs. **Staple crops.**

Rice falls into three main subdivisions, *sail* or transplanted winter paddy, *aman* or long-stemmed paddy generally sown in marshy tracts, and *aus* or summer rice. *Sail* usually forms about 70 per cent. of the rice crop of the plains, *aman* about 8 per cent., and *aus* about 22 per cent. **Rice.**

Sail. *Sail*, or transplanted winter rice, is raised in the following way. The seeds, which are selected from the largest ears of the previous year's crop, are steeped in water in bamboo baskets, with a layer of straw spread over them, till they begin to germinate. They are then sown broadcast on little beds near the homestead, or on the higher parts of the rice fields. These nursery beds, which are known as *hali charras*, are ploughed up five or six times, and watered till the soil is reduced nearly to a puddle. They are then divided up into small patches with little drains which serve to tarry off the water if there is heavy rain.

The seed comes up a rich emerald green, and at the beginning of summer, these patches of the brightest green herbage are a striking feature in the rural landscape. In the meanwhile the fields are being got ready for the reception of the seedlings. The husbandman starts ploughing as soon as the soil is softened by the spring rain, and repeats the process from four to eight times till he has reduced the land to a rich puddle of mud. After the third ploughing the field is harrowed, the little embankments, a few inches high, intended to retain the water are repaired, and if the fields adjoin the road or the village site, they are fenced in with split bamboo. When the seedlings are about seven or eight weeks' old, they are taken from the nursery bed and carried in large bundles to the field. Here they are planted out in handfuls (*guchis*) each of which contains two or three plants at the beginning of the season, and four or five if transplantation is being carried on at the end of summer, when there is little probability

of the seedlings throwing out new roots. The distance at which the *guchis* are planted from one another depends upon the fertility of the soil and the time at which the work is done, but, as a rule, they are placed about eighteen inches apart. It is not unfrequently the practice to steep the young plants in water before they are planted out, and if they seem too luxuriant, the tops are cut off before they are removed from the nursery. Transplanting goes on from the beginning of July to the middle of September, and is sometimes carried out by the women of the humble Hindu castes such as the Dom Patnis Malis, and Numasudras. Muhammadans never allow their womenkind to labour in the fields, and pay the Hindu women from two to two and a half rupees for every acre planted out. The Dom Patnis and Naths or Jugis have recently come to the conclusion that it is derogatory to employ their women in this way, and no longer allow them to transplant the paddy. Such an innovation is not to be regretted as the work is of a most arduous description, and involves stooping for hours in a field of liquid mud, under the rays of a burning tropical sun. Sometimes the supply of seedlings runs short, and the grain is then steeped in water till it germinates, and sown broadcast on the field. Before the end of the rains the crop is fully grown though the ears are still empty, but about the beginning of October they begin to fill, and the field turns to a rich yellow. From the middle of November to the middle of January, harvesting is going on. Except amongst the Manipuris, the reaping and carrying of the paddy is entirely done by men. A handful of stalks is seized and cut off about eighteen inches below

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the ear. Each of these handfuls is called *kachi*, taking its name from the sickle used by the reapers, and twenty or thirty are piled together and then tied up to form a *muit* or bundle. Two *muits* form the load which is carried across the shoulder by the men, on a sharp pointed bamboo or pole cut from an areca tree called *hooja*. The enterprising raiyat in Cachar is, however, gradually realising that there are easier and cheaper means of transporting burdens than men's shoulders, and the harvest is sometimes dragged home on a primitive wheel-less sledge made of bamboo, to which a bullock or a buffalo is harnessed.

Aman.

Aman is a long stemmed variety of paddy, which generally yields a smaller outturn than *sail*, while the grain is not, as a rule, of such a fine variety. *Asra*, which is a kind of *aman*, is sown broadcast on low land which has been ploughed up five or six times, and is harvested at the same time as *sail*. The area under transplanted *aman* is not large, and the system of cultivation is practically the same as that employed for *sail*. *Aman* is generally grown in the lower country such as the parganas near the foot of the North Cachar Hills, Banraj, the Chatla *haor*, and, most of all, the Hailakandi pargana.

Aus is either sown on *chur* land which is exposed to risk of flood, or upon fields from which a crop of *sail* is subsequently taken; it is also sometimes grown in conjunction with a crop of *aman*. In *chur* land the fields are ploughed three times and harrowed, and a short interval is then allowed to give time for the weeds to rot. Another ploughing follows, the seed is sown broadcast, and the ground is again ploughed and harrowed to ensure that the grain becomes thoroughly mixed with the soil. The

crop is generally ready for the sickle in June or July. *Aus* is occasionally transplanted like *sail*, but ripens earlier than that form of rice. *Aus* is grown very largely in the Hailakandi subdivision, where there is nearly one acre of *aus* for every two of *sail*, whereas in the *sadr* thana the proportion is about one to six. The two varieties of *aus* most generally grown are known as *murali* and *dumahi*. The latter, as its name suggests, is supposed to ripen in two months, though it usually takes a little longer, while for *murali* at least three months are generally required.

There are three different systems for raising mustard in the district, known by the following names: (1) *dhupi*, (2) *hainna*, (3) *haoria*. *Dhupi* is generally sown on high land near the homesteads. The land is ploughed five or six times, and then manured with cowdung. Three or four ploughings follow, and the mustard seed is sown. The field is then again ploughed twice or thrice and carefully harrowed, to ensure that the seed is mixed with the soil. *Hainna* mustard is sown on *chur* land, the system followed being the same as in the case of *dhupi*, but manure is not required. The *haoria* mustard, as its name implies, is raised in *haors*. It is sown on the moist silt as soon as the water sinks, and no ploughing is required. The land is fertilized by the ashes of the reeds growing in these marshes, which have to be cut and burned before the seed is sown. Mustard is ready to be pulled in February. The plants after they have been taken from the soil are generally left to dry for a few days. They are then tied up in bundles and carried to the homestead where the seed is threshed out with bamboo sticks. Most of the mustard in the **Mustard.**

district is grown in the Hailakandi valley, and in the parganas on either side of the Barak, such as Sonapur, Banraj, Rupairbali, and Barakpur.

Fibres.

Jute is grown in small patches as a garden crop. The plants are cut in August and September, stripped of their leaves, tied in bundles, and left to rot in pools of water for from seven to twelve days. When they are ready they are taken from the water, and the outer fabric is neatly removed from the stem. There were only 86 acres under jute in the Cachar Plains in 1903-04.

Small patches of rhea (*bœhmeria nivea*) are grown in the gardens of the fishing castes where they are heavily manured. When the plants are ripe a handful of stems is taken up, broken in the middle, and beaten to and fro in the water till the inner part drops out and only the fibre remains. The thread obtained is exceptionally strong and durable, but the difficulty of decortication has hitherto prevented the growth of rhea on a commercial scale.

Storage and Threshing of Grain.

Very little sun generally falls upon the actual homestead of the villager as it is buried in clumps of trees, and the grain is accordingly dried and threshed in an open space outside the *bari* called the *chotal*. The place selected is cleared of grass and jungle, plastered with cowdung, and surrounded with a small embankment. The grain is generally trodden out by bullocks, and winnowed either by letting it fall to the ground from a sieye or *kula*, or by fanning it as it is spread out over the ground. When dry it is stored in a small granary or *bhoral*.

The agricultural implements in use are of a very simple character. The plough is generally made of the jack fruit tree or some other hard wood and consists of three parts: (1) the handle and the body, which are usually all in one piece, (2) the pole, which joins the plough at the junction of the handle and the body, and (3) the yoke which is merely a piece of bamboo fastened by rope at right angles to the pole, with pegs affixed to it to keep it from sliding from the necks of the bullocks. The front portion of the body is sharpened to a point which is shod with iron. The whole instrument is suited to the wretched class of animals required to draw it. It weighs, as a rule, about 20 lbs., and when cattle are used, the yoke seldom stands as much as three feet from the ground. When buffaloes are employed the whole plough is constructed on a larger scale. It is obvious that such an instrument can only penetrate from three to four inches into the soil, but the wretched quality of the plough cattle prohibits the use of a more effective implement. Agricultural implements. The plough.

The harrow (*moi*) is a bamboo ladder about eight feet in length, on which a man stands as it is drawn across the field by cattle. It is used to crush the clods turned up by the plough, before mustard or summer rice is sown, and to reduce the fields required for wet rice to puddle. Hoes (*kodals*) are used to trim the embankments (*ails*) which help to retain the water. The head is bought in the bazars and costs from Re. 1 to Re. 1-4, and is fitted with a shaft by the farmer himself. Sickles (*kachi*), with which the rice is reaped, have also to be purchased and cost from 2 to 4 annas. Other implements.

The ordinary instrument used for husking grain is the *dheki*, a long beam of wood with a pestle affixed at the end, which is supported by two posts about two-thirds of the length from the head. The shorter end is depressed by the foot and the pestle is thus raised into the air. The weight is then removed and the pestle falls into a small wooden mortar which is sunk in the ground. A large pestle *sia*, and mortar *gail* are also sometimes used for husking grain.

Sugarcane. Sugarcane is grown on high land near the village site where the soil has to be well manured with cowdung, on low hills or *tilas*, and along the banks of rivers. The crop is propagated from the tops of the best canes, which are cut off at harvest time and kept in a shady place. One of these tops yields on the average about five canes, and as they contain but little juice, the cultivator does not sacrifice much of the gross products of his fields in the cause of reproduction. Three varieties of sugarcane are recognised in Cachar, *viz*,—Dhola Khagri, Lal Khagri, and Bombay.

The Bombay variety is larger and more juicy than the indigenous kinds, but yields a smaller proportion of sugar. The land on which the cane is to be grown is hoed until it is reduced to a fine tilth, and the tops planted in trenches between April and June. The patch is fenced with split bamboo, and while the crop is growing, it is hoed and weeded several times. Constant watching is required to scare away jackals and other animals, and an empty oil tin with a clapper is generally to be seen suspended over each field.

The total area under sugarcane in the plains in

1903-04 was 5,200 acres. The parganas in which it is most extensively cultivated are Vernerpur, Udharband, Chatla Haor, Lakhipur, Sonapur, and Banraj. In the disforested tracts, in the south of the Hailakandi subdivision, no cultivation is required. The low hills are cleared of jungle, the earth turned up with a hoe, and the tops inserted. Canes so planted will yield a crop for three years in succession, as after the stems have been cut the roots are burnt, and throw out new shoots themselves the following season. The pressing of the cane and the boiling of the juice goes on from December to March. The native mill is made of wood, and consists of two rollers fixed side by side in a trough hollowed out of a heavy block of wood. The tops of the two rollers pass through a beam supported by uprights let through the lower block of wood into the ground, and are cut into the form of screws which fit into one another. To the larger of the two is affixed a pole which is driven round and thus causes the two rollers to revolve. This form of mill is called *kamrangi*, but it has been largely superseded by the iron mill. The juice is stored in empty oil tins, and, when a sufficient quantity has been collected, is boiled in iron cauldrons. When the liquid has been reduced to the proper consistency, the cauldron is taken from the fire, and the molasses stirred till they assume the consistency and hue of yellow mud.

Cultivation in the hills.

In the valley bottoms the Kacharis sometimes grow wet rice, in the manner which has already been described. On the hill sides the people follow the shifting system of cultivation known as *jhum*. The jungle is cut in February and March, and fired as soon as it is dry.

The ground is then hoed lightly over, and the rice, which is of two varieties, red and white, sown. While the crop is growing, it has to be kept free from weeds, and it is finally harvested in November. Other crops raised are cotton, chillies, and maize. Cotton is planted, if possible, in sandy soil, in May or June, and is gathered about the the beginning of November. The ordinary agricultural implements in the hills are *daos* or bill-hooks, small axes, hoes, in which the head is fitted at an acute angle to the shaft, and sickles.

Causes affecting productiveness of land.

The fertility of the rice fields mainly depends upon the following five causes:—the water-supply, the quality of the soil, and the liability to injury from flood, wild animals, or shade. The first-named factor is probably of most importance. The animals which do most injury to the crops are pigs, monkeys, and birds.

Serious damage is sometimes done by insects called *lehari* and *kharta.* The *kharta* is a small bug which injures the rice plant by feeding on the stems and sucking all the sap from the young grains. It is most prevalent in July and August and is particularly in evidence during a spell of hot dry weather. High wind and rain drive it back into the jungle, and good results are obtained by lighting fires of vegetable refuse to windward. The best remedy of all is to collect the insects by smearing a winnowing fan with some glutinous substance and brushing it over the ears of grain, when many of the bugs will be found adhering to the fan. This remedy should be tried in the morning or late afternoon, as the insects do not feed in the heat of the day. The *chara* is a tiny beetle, which eats away the outer surface of the

leaves and stalks, and thus affects the outturn of the crops. It attacks the young plants in the nursery and can most easily be destroyed there by spraying.* Smoking the fields also produces good results, but must be continued for some days or the beetles will return. Rain is wanted when *sail* rice is sown and is transplanted, but is not needed for the sowing of *dumahi* and *murali*. During every stage of its growth the plant is benefited by moderate showers, but rain is absolutely essential at the time when the ears are first appearing. Hail storms in December sometimes lay the crop and add materially to the cost of reaping, but fortunately are very local in their action.

Garden crops. The plantain.

One of the most valuable of garden crops is the plantain (*musa sapientum*). As many as ten main varieties of this tree are recognized, but the most important are those known as *athia*, *sail*, *cheni champa*, and *sapri*. The first two groups are again subdivided into a considerable number of different species. The *sail* is a somewhat smaller tree than the *athia*, the pulp of the fruit is white and slightly acid in taste, and it is largely used in combination with soft rice and milk at village feasts. The *sapri* and *cheni champa* are small trees, whose fruit is much appreciated by Europeans. The *athia* plantain is generally grown near the homestead where it can obtain a plentiful supply of manure, but the finer varieties are planted at a little distance to protect them from the earthworms, whose attacks they are hardly strong

* The best solution is 1lb Paris Green, 1lb freshly slacked lime or flour, and 150 gallons water. The solution should be kept constantly stirred and should be sprayed on with a fine sprayer.

enough to resist. Sandy soil and heavy clay check the growth of the plant, and anything in the shape of water-logging is most injurious. The trees are planted in holes about a foot wide and eighteen inches deep and are manured with ashes and sweepings. Young saplings take from eighteen months to two years to flower, and the flowers take from three to six months to turn into fruit. The plantain tree plays many parts in addition to that of fruit purveyor. The flower is much esteemed as a vegetable, the leaves serve as plates, and the trunks are used for decorative purposes on occasions of ceremony, and as food for elephants.

Other garden crops.

The betel nut (*areca catechu*) is grown almost as universally as the plantain, and, with the bamboo, forms the great trinity of trees in which the houses of the villagers are usually embedded. The plantation is hoed up and kept clear of weeds, and the trees are most liberally manured with cowdung. Tobacco is generally grown by Manipuris. The seedlings are raised in carefully manured beds in August and September. At the beginning of November they are transplanted into ground which has been reduced to a fine tilth, watered for a few days, and protected from the sun by little sections of the plantain trunk. The bed is lightly hoed up two or three times, and not more than ten or twelve leaves are allowed to grow on each plant, the remainder being picked off as they appear. The leaves are gathered in February and March. If required for chewing they are either dried under a shed, or else pressed into a hollow bamboo (*chunga*) and allowed to ferment. When th

tobacco is destined for the pipe, the leaves are piled in heaps till they ferment, cut up and mixed with molasses, and then are ready for the hookah. The commonest forms of vegetable grown are, spinach, *pui* (*basella alba*), *lai*, a species of *brassica*, different kinds of arums (*kachu*), different kinds of yams (*dioscorea*) and gourds, the country bean *uri* (*dolichos lablab*), the radish *mula* (*raphanus sativus*), the sorrel *chuka sag* (*rumex vesicarius*) and the brinjal or *begun* (*solanum melongena*).

Yield and value of crops.

	lbs.
Sail	1,000
Aus	800
Aman	850
Mustard	500
Molasses	2,200

The outturn of different crops varies according to the character of the season, and also to a great extent according to the character and level of the soil on which they are grown. The statement in the margin shows the normal yield per acre laid down by the Agricultural Department after a long series of experiments. These figures only represent a general mean, and even in a normal year there are many fields whose outturn varies largely from the average. The yield of rice, it may be premised, is expressed in terms of husked grain. Like the outturn the cash value of the crop can only be approximately ascertained. The prices obtained by the raiyats vary to some extent in different parts of the district, but probably average about Re. 1-4 per maund of unhusked grain. Assuming that unhusked paddy yields 62 per cent. of clean rice, it would appear that the value of the harvest from an acre of *sail* is Rs. 24, from one of *aman* Rs. 21, and from one of *aus* Rs. 20. For mustard the villagers generally get about Rs. 2-14 a maund, so that the yield from one acre is worth about Rs. 17. Molasses fetch about Rs. 5 per maund, so that the yield from one acre is worth some Rs. 185.

Live stock.

Buffaloes are often used to drag the plough in Cachar, and are of two distinct breeds. The Manipuri buffalo is a fine upstanding animal, with wide spreading horns, and is larger and stronger than the *bangar* whose horns curve downwards and inwards. A Manipuri bull costs from Rs. 30 to Rs. 80, whereas the price of the *bangar* ranges from Rs. 20 to Rs. 50. The price of a Manipuri cow buffalo ranges from Rs. 40 to Rs. 125, and of one of the other breed from Rs. 25 to Rs. 70.

The cattle are miserable little creatures, and are some of the sorriest specimens of their kind. No attention is paid to breeding; during a portion of the year they generally go short of food, and the policy of total indifference and neglect is attended by the usual results. The Manipuri cattle, though small, are a fine and sturdy little breed, and are much appreciated by the cultivators of the Surma Valley. The goats are not much more satisfactory than the cattle, and yield little milk. There is no indigenous breed of sheep, and those that are imported do not thrive. The country ponies too are wretched little beasts about 11 hands high, with neither pace, endurance, nor manners. The Manipuri pony, though small, is a very different little creature. It has astonishing endurance and considerable pace, and Manipuri ponies, with ten stone up, have run the mile in two minutes and ten seconds.* Unfortunately, good ponies are now extremely scarce even in their native valley, and comparatively few of them find their way into Cachar. A census of the live stock was taken in 1902 and disclosed the following results: Bulls and bullocks,

* Dacca Blue Book, page 371.

85,000; cows, 62,000; male buffaloes, 19,000; cow buffaloes, 28,000; young stock, 83,000; sheep, 2,000; goats, 49,000; ponies, 1,100.

During the rains, when the rice crop is on the ground and the *haors* or swamps are under water, there is often difficulty in obtaining grazing for the cattle. They are turned out on the high land between the fields, and on the jungle-covered hills to pick up what they can, and rice straw is sometimes fed to them; but in every part of the plains there is a dearth of suitable fodder at this season of the year, and the condition of the cattle falls off very much. After the crop is cut they are allowed into the fields to browse upon the stubble, or are driven to the swamps when the water falls. In the Katigara tahsil there is a considerable area of low land that makes an excellent grazing ground in winter, the best known *haors* being the Thulang, the Talkar, the Rowar, the Dubria, and the Duba. In the hills, there is never any scarcity of grazing for the buffaloes and mithun (*bos frontalis*) which are the only cattle kept by the hill men. In this portion of the district there are a considerable number of professional graziers, Nepalese by race, who were attracted there at the time when the railway was being made. In the plains, the buffalo-keeper who lives by selling milk and *ghi* is only found in the Chatla *haor* and the Katigara tahsil, and even there he is by no means a common figure. Grazing.

The most common forms of cattle disease prevalent in the district are foot and mouth disease, rinderpest (*guti*), a disease called *kachua*, the principal symptoms of which are flatulence and diarrhœa (*marki*), cholera, Cattle disease.

matikhoa the first symptom of which is, as the name implies, the eating of earth followed by dysentery, and *sukuna* when the animal refuses to eat and dies after ten days or a fortnight.

Tea—Character of gardens.

Measured by the standard of value the most important crop that is raised in Cachar is tea. The tree was discovered growing wild in Cachar in 1855, and the first plantation was opened in mauza Barsangan in 1856. The gardens were at first laid out on the flat tops of the low spurs which project from the Barail towards the Barak. The area here available was unfortunately not large, and south of the river planters turned to undulating land and the low round-topped hills called *tilas*, which are dotted about the surface of the plain. When these hills are cleared of jungle the soil is little inferior to that of the plateaux, which is of a chocolate colour, but the surface mould is washed away by the heavy rains, and the land in consequence loses much of its fertility. In 1875, the experiment was tried of planting out tea on low marsh land which had been thoroughly drained, and it was found that the rich soil yielded an exceptionally large return of leaf. The smaller drains are placed at intervals of about 30 feet apart, and in pure peat considerable allowance has to be made for shrinkage of the soil when drained. In some cases *bil* land has sunk as much as four or five feet, and the tea has been killed by water-logging, though in its uncleared state the site seemed suitable enough. Gardens of this kind are now to be found in every part of the district except the north and the north-west, and furnish a considerable proportion of the total crop. The quality of the tea is not as good as that produced on other soils,

but at present the difference in the market price is slight.

In the early sixties tea-planting was regarded rather as a speculation than a solid industry. A saying then in vogue in Cachar was that it was very doubtful whether it would ever pay to make tea, but that there was no doubt that it would pay to make gardens; and gardens were described as being made to sell but not to pay.* "Scarcely any one interested," says Mr. Edgar, who was Deputy Commissioner at the time, "looked forward to obtaining his return from the produce of his tea cultivation; everyone looked forward to becoming suddenly and immensely rich by getting a piece of land, planting it out with tea, and then selling it for a vastly greater sum than he had expended on it." Gardens were sold for 700 or 800 per cent. more than they had cost to make, and in some cases the plantations when they changed hands existed only on paper. This unhealthy state of affairs soon produced its own remedy. The crash came in 1866 when many concerns collapsed, and the period of depression continued till 1869. It was then found that people who had worked steadily were making a substantial profit, and that many of the estates of the bubble companies were doing well under careful management. The area under cultivation in Cachar was said to be 24,151 acres, which yielded 4,235,000 lbs. of manufactured tea—a quantity which exceeded that produced in the neighbouring district of Sylhet even as late as 1881. By 1882, the area under plant had risen to 48,873 acres and the yield to 12,721,000

Development of industry.

* Papers regarding the tea industry in Bengal, Calcutta, 1873.

lbs., which was considerably in excess of that returned from any other district in the Province. The industry continued to develop, though not as rapidly as elsewhere, and in 1898 the area under plant was 62,179 acres, and the outturn 20,898,000 lbs. Then ensued a series of favourable seasons, and though there was a decrease in the cultivated area, the yield in 1901 was 31,088,000 lbs. Statistics for later years will be found in Table VII; and in Appendix A there is a statement showing the area, labour force, and position of each garden.

Labour supply.

There is little local labour available for work on the plantations, and most of the coolies have to be brought from other parts of India. The total number so imported during the ten years ending with 1890 was 51,894, and during the next decade it was 75,412. At the present moment the supply of labour in the recruiting districts is quite inadequate, and the dearth of coolies is a source of inconvenience. Waste land suitable for the growth of rice is not, as a rule, to be found either on the grants themselves or in their neighbourhood; and coolies when they leave the gardens are compelled to settle in the remoter parts of the district, where their labour is lost to the industry. The cost of importation is considerable, and few people would be willing to expend large sums of money in bringing up labourers to the district, without some guarantee that for a time, at any rate, they would be able to retain their services. This guarantee is afforded by Act XIII of 1859, which empowers a magistrate to order a man who has taken an advance of money on account of work to be done by him, to complete his contract, and to

punish him with imprisonment if he declines to carry out this order. The number of cases in which the coolie is actually confined is, however, small.

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In the early days of the industry the mortality amongst the imported coolies was extremely high, and the relations between the planters and their labour force were often far from satisfactory. The mortality in transit too was very heavy. Between May 1863 and January 31st, 1868, 52,155 coolies were imported to Cachar, of whom 2,456 or 4·7 per cent. died during the voyage. As, even at that time, the journey occupied less than a month, the rate of mortality can only be characterised as appalling. This has, however, happily been changed, and, in 1902-03, the death-rate amongst adult coolies in Cachar was only 27 per mille. The statement in the margin shows the areas from which the labour force in 1901 had been recruited. Those born in Assam are, for the most part, children of immigrant coolies.

	Number.	Percentage.
Total ...	... 129,063	...
Assam ...	... 50,287	39
Chota Nagpur ...	21,347	16
Other parts of Bengal	27,962	22
U. Provinces ...	13,725	11
C. Provinces ...	11,921	9

Varieties of plant.

Four distinct varieties of wild tea are recognised: Assam indigenous, which has a leaf from 6 to $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length by $2\frac{3}{8}$ to $2\frac{7}{8}$ inches in width; Manipur or Burma indigenous with a larger, darker, and coarser leaf than the preceding variety; Lushai or Cachar indigenous, whose mature leaf is from 12 to 14 inches long and from 6 to $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches wide; and the Naga indigenous which has a long and narrow leaf. In addition to these four varieties there is the China plant, and different

kinds of hybrids. The China tea is a squat and bushy shrub with small leaves, which gives a lower yield per acre than the other kinds. It is many years since China seed was planted out in new clearances, and considerable areas covered by this plant have been abandoned. In its natural state the indigenous plant attains to the dimensions of a tree, varying from 20 to 50 feet in height, though its girth seldom exceeds two feet. It has a vigorous growth and yields a large outturn of fine flavoured tea, but is delicate when young. Of the hybrid variety there are many qualities ranging from nearly pure indigenous to nearly pure China. The Burmese plant, which has a smaller and darker leaf than the variety found in Cachar and the Lushai Hills, is the one which is most in favour with the planters of Cachar. It comes into bearing quickly, is fairly hardy, and yields a good outturn of tea per acre. The following gardens are noted for the excellence of the seed raised on them: Kalain, Jatinga, Kasipur, Alyne, and Goabari. Owing to the period of depression through which the industry has recently been passing, the price of seed is much lower than it was and ranges from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 per maund.

System of cultivation.

The seed is planted in nursery beds in December and January and kept under shade till the young plants are three or four inches above the ground. Transplanting goes on between April and July, whenever there is rain, the plants being usually placed from four to five feet apart. During the first two years of their life little more is required than to keep the plantation clear of weeds. By this time the plants are from two to four

feet high, and at the end of the rains they are pruned down to fifteen inches or a foot to encourage lateral growth. In the third year the plant can be lightly plucked over, but the yield of leaf is small. Pruning is continued every year. Only about two inches of the wood formed since the previous pruning are left, and any unhealthy or stunted branches are removed. As an extreme remedy old plants, in which there is a large proportion of gnarled and twisted wood, are sawn off level with the ground, and fresh shoots are allowed to spring from the root itself. Warm, moist weather is required for the proper development of the plant, but anything in the shape of waterlogging has to be carefully avoided. During the rains the garden is hoed over several times, in order to render the soil permeable to rain water and the roots of the bush. At the end of the rains the ground is hoed up to the depth of eight or nine inches. The object of this is to protect the land from drought, as the hoed up soil prevents the evaporation of water from the lower strata. It also adds to the fertility of the land by exposing it to air, light, and changes in temperature. Manure has hitherto been little used. Oil cake and cowdung are sometimes spread about the plants, and exhausted land is sometimes top dressed with rich soil from a neighbouring marsh. The cost of these operations is considerable, and they are not invariably successful from the pecuniary point of view. Plucking is started at the beginning of March and is continued till Christmas. The bud and the two top leaves are taken from each shoot, but fresh leaves soon appear, and, in about five weeks' time, the shoot is ready to be plucked again. This

throwing out of new leaves is termed a flush, and there are usually six or seven full flushes in a season, though each bush is picked over at the height of the season every seven or eight days, as the twigs develop at different times. The plucking is usually done by women and children, while the men are engaged in hoeing up the ground around the plants. The plant is liable to be attacked by a large number of pests, the best known being the tea mosquito or blight, the green fly, the red spider, thread and grey blight, and red rust. A full account of these pests will be found in "The pests and blights of the tea plant," by Watt and Mann, Calcutta, 1903.

System of manufacture.

When the leaf has been taken to the factory, it is spread out in thin layers on trays and allowed to wither. In fine weather the process takes about 18 hours, but, if it is cold and wet, from 36 to 40 hours may elapse before the leaf is ready. On these occasions recourse is often had to artificial withering. When the leaf has been properly withered it is placed in the rolling machines. The object of rolling is to break up the cellular matter and liberate the juices, and to give a twist to the leaf. Rolling takes about half an hour, and after this the leaf is spread out in a cool room for six hours or so to ferment. It is then rolled for another quarter of an hour and placed on trays in the firing machines, through which hot air is driven, until the last trace of moisture has been expelled, and the tea is crisp to the touch. The leaf is then passed through sieves of varying degrees of fineness, and the tea sorted into different grades. The best and most expensive quality is called orange pekoe

and is made from the bud or tip, which contains all the good qualities of tea in a more concentrated form than any of the other leaves, is stronger, and has a more delicate flavour. The other grades which are differentiated by the size of the mesh through which they pass are orange pekoe, broken pekoe, souchong, and fannings. After the tea has been sorted it is fired once more to remove any moisture it may have absorbed from the surrounding atmosphere, and is packed in lead-lined boxes while it is still warm. The leaf loses largely in weight during the process of manufacture, and green leaf yields only 23 or 24 per cent. of tea. In the case of plant grown on *bil* land the proportion is even lower.

Outturn and prices.

The yield per acre is higher in Cachar than in most of the districts of Assam, and is on the average about 500 lbs. of manufactured tea. This is, however, only a rough general average, and different gardens and different seasons vary largely from this mean. A good *bil* garden will sometimes give as much as 1,400 lbs. per acre. Prices vary considerably from year to year, but the development of the industry has not unnaturally been accompanied by a great decline in the amount paid for the manufactured article. In 1868, it was said that tea would have to be sold at 2*s*. a pound in London to cover the cost of manufacture,* and, in 1882, the Deputy Commissioner complained that the average price had fallen to 1*s*. 2*d*. a pound., which was a serious matter as few gardens could produce their tea for less than a shilling. Since that date there has been a great reduction in the

* Report of the Commission appointed to enquire into the state and prospects of Tea Cultivation in Assam, Cachar, and Sylhet, Calcutta, 1868, p. 14.

cost of production, and, in 1903, though the average price was only $6\frac{1}{2}d.$ a pound. the results of the season were considered far from unsatisfactory.

Green tea.

Of recent years an attempt has been made to introduce the manufacture of green tea in order to meet the demands of the American market. In 1902, the Indian Tea Association offered a bounty of $1\frac{1}{2}$ annas on every pound of green tea manufactured. The following year this bounty was reduced by half, and nearly a million pounds of green tea were exported from Cachar. The principal difference between the manufacture of green and black tea is that the former article is not fermented. As soon as the leaf comes in, it is steamed in a drum for about half a minute; a process which turns it a bright green colour and effectually stops all fermentation. Excess moisture is then removed by a hydro-extractor or centrifugal machine, and it is then rolled, fired, and sorted into the following different grades, pinhead gunpowder, gunpowder young hyson, hyson no. i, hyson no. ii, twanky and dust. The infused leaf should be of a bright green colour, and the liquor of a very pale yellow shade. Most of this tea is sent to North America, but a small quantity is sold in the Midlands.

Forests Area.

The forests of Cachar fall into two main classes, the reserves and the unclassed state forests. Unclassed state forest is, however, nothing more nor less than waste land at the disposal of the Government, and does not of necessity possess any sylvan characteristics. In 1903-04, the area of the reserved forests was returned as 807 square miles. The alteration in the southern boundary of the district, which was carried out in 1904, transferred a

portion of these reserves to the Lushai Hills, but they remain for departmental purposes under the forest officer stationed at Silchar. The area of unclassed state forest was 711 square miles, but this does not include the area of waste land in the North Cachar subdivision. The population of this subdivision has a density of about 12 to the square mile,* but the *jhum* system of cultivation, which from time immemorial has been practised by the inhabitants, is very unfavourable to tree growth.

The reserves.

The Barail reserve is situated in the North Cachar Hills, a little to the north of Maibang, and the Langting Mupa forest lies to the north of Katigara. All the other reserves are situated in the southern portion of the district, where they form a compact block, 692 miles in area, with one thin arm thrown out to Baladhan along the eastern frontier. The forests in the south are situated on low hilly country, much broken up with valleys. These hills are, for the most part, covered with mixed deciduous and evergreen forest; but where they have been *jhumed*, trees give place to bamboo scrub. Low swampy valleys are covered with canes and reeds, higher ones with tree growth. Details with regard to the area, date of constitution, and characteristics of each reserve over ten miles in area, will be found appended to this chapter. The receipts from each of these forests are shown in Table VIII.

Timber trees.

The following are the most valuable timber trees found in the district, and the uses to which they are generally put. House posts—nagesvar (*mesua ferrea*), jarul (*lagerstroemia flos reginae*), gomari (*gmelina*

* This figure excludes the temporary railway population.

arborea), sundi, and ramdala (*duabanga soneratioides*). Beams—cham (*artocarpus chaplasha*), rata (*dysoxylum binectariferum*), kurta (*isonandra polyantha*), jhalna (*terminalia bicolorata*), tailo (*castanopsis indica*), ramdala, dewa (*artocarpus lakoocha*), poma (*cedrela toona*), sida (*lagerstroemia parviflora*). Furniture—rata kurta, poma, gundroi (*cinnamomum glanduliferum*), cham, kathal (*artocarpus integrifolia*), and dewa. Agricultural purposes—gomari and jam (*eugenia sp.*). Tea boxes—tula, dhumboil (*beilschmiedia sikkimensis*), am (*mangifera sylvatica*), kadam (*anthocephalus cadamba*), simul (*bombax malabaricum*), sutrong, haris (*albizzia stipulata*), odal (*sterculia villosa*), hortuki (*terminalia citrina*), satri (*alstonia scholaris*), and sita. Railway sleepers—nagesvar and sida. Dug-out canoes—cham, poma, and simul. Boats—nagesvar, jarul, cham, and poma. Firewood—chalita (*dillenia indica*), sita, and buara. Perfumes—agar (*aquilaria agallocha*).

System of management.

The reserved forests are under the general control of a Forest Officer, assisted by a suitable staff. In unclassed state forests, settlement holders are allowed to graze their cattle, and to remove any forest produce other than reserved trees, free of charge, provided that it is required for home consumption and not for sale. Professional herdsman pay a fee of 8 annas for each buffalo and 4 annas per head of other horned cattle.

System of extraction.

The first step to be taken by a timber trader is to apply for a permit for the trees he wishes to extract. The trees selected are marked by an officer of the

* In the Inner Line reserve, whence most of the timber is obtained, previous marking is not required.

department, and can then be felled.* After felling they are cut up into logs, dragged to the nearest stream, made up into small rafts (*khatais*), and floated out of the forest. Trees whose specific gravity is greater than that of water are buoyed with bamboos. Lower down the river the *khatais* are made up into larger rafts (*chalis*), and taken to one of the revenue stations at Sonaimukh, Silchar, and Siyaltek. Royalty can be paid either at Silchar or Hailakandi, or at Katigara tahsil office; and, on the production of the treasury voucher, a pass is issued and the produce can be removed. Timber may not be landed before it has reached a check station, except under the written authority of the forest officer. The rates of royalty on timber in the rough vary from one to four annas per cubic foot, according to the character of the tree. On bamboos there is a duty of Rs. 2-8 per thousand.

Timber Trade.

There is a brisk trade in timber in Cachar, and from Table IX it will be seen that in this district the department is able to make a profit. The outturn of timber from the unclassed state forests is, however, generally larger than that from the reserves. In 1900-01, there was a considerable revenue derived from rubber, but the trees seem to have been killed out by overtapping, and since that year very little caoutchouc has passed through Cachar. Bamboos and cane are the most valuable minor forest products in the district.

List of Reserved Forests.

NAME.	Situation and character of soil.	Area in sq. miles.	Date when constituted a reserve.	Name of valuable timber trees.	Routes for extraction of produce.
Upper Jiri ...	Situated at the foot of the North Cachar Hills. The northern portion of the forest is hilly. The soil is a fairly light deposit of clay and sand.	24	1860	Jarul, Nagesvar, Kurta, Rata, Ping, Cham, Gundroi, Poma, &c.	Digli, Lakhichara, Sulaikhal, and Jiri rivers.
Katakhal ...	East of Hailakandi valley. Central portion low and marshy, elsewhere hilly. Soil deep sandy loam.	80	1877	Jarul, Gundroi, Nagesvar, Cham, Rata, Poma, Kurta, Ping, Jhoki, Jhalna, &c.	Jalinga, Goglachara, Lalachara, Dholchara, Barunchara, Rupachara, Dhaleswari, and Katakhal rivers.
Lower Jiri ...	On the eastern border of the district. Hilly and in places quite rocky, with very little flat land. Soil sandy and deep red clay.	14	1878	Do. Do.	Bagkhal, Khapaparakhal, Latingkhal, Jiri, and Barak rivers.
Barak ...	Do. Do.	69	1878	Jarul, Nagesvar, Kurta, Rata, Ping, Cham, Gundroi, Poma, &c., Betula and other higher altitude trees.	Bhubankhal, Mohankhal, and Barak river.
Inner Line ...	South of Cachar and north of Lushai Hills. Only a small portion of this enormous forest has been explored.	302	1877	Gundroi, Cham Jarul, Nagesvar, Rata, Kurta, Poma, Sundi, Jhalna, Ping, Karal, Jam, Jhoki, &c.	Barak, Tipai, Ronduang, Sonai, Rukni, Panikhal, Salganga, Barunchara, Jhalnacharakhal, Bhairabichara, and Dhaleswari river.
Langting Mupa	Neighbourhood of Nemotha.	80	1900	Nagesvar, Sida, Poma, Gundroi, Cham, Haldi, &c.	Assam-Bengal Railway and Mupa, Langting, Doiang, Saradong, Boila and Diakho.
Barail ...	In North Cachar Hills near Maibang. Very hilly, and in places rocky. Soil not very deep.	35	1902	Jarul, Gundroi, Nagesvar, Cham, Rata, Poma, Kurta, Ping, Jhoki, Jhalna, &c.	Abong, Subong, Mamachara, Dalu, Dikhongma, Dimum, and Jatinga rivers.

CHAPTER V.

INDUSTRIES.

Arts and industries—Lac—Weaving of cotton cloth—Eri silk—Pottery—Saw mills—The fishing industry.

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APART from tea, and two saw mills worked by European capital, the industries of Cachar are of very small importance. They include weaving, the making of rough pottery, bell-metal utensils, iron hoes, daos, and simple agricultural implements, and the expressing of mustard oil. The following statement shows the number of persons in the Cachar Plains, who returned these various industries as their means of livelihood, at the censuses of 1891 and 1901. From this it is clear that they can be of but little importance in the economy of an area, which in the latter year had a population of 414, 781, souls. Arts and industries.

	Workers in and sellers of bell-metal, etc.	Workers in and sellers of iron work.	Pressers and sellers of oil.	Makers and sellers of pots.
1891	... 76	479	181	1,003
1901	... 80	505	68	647

This statement would at first suggest that the oilman's and the potter's craft were falling into disrepute,

but this is not the case. Considerably more than half the persons who practised these industries in 1891, were at the same time tillers of the soil; but in the census tables all these semi-agriculturists were shown as oil-pressers or potters as the case might be. In 1901, persons whose principal occupation was cultivation were shewn under that head, and the fact that in their leisure moments they made daos or earthen pots was disregarded. Bell-metal utensils are cast in moulds by Manipuris, but the total output is extremely small. Iron daos, axes, hoes, and sickles are made by Kamars from lumps of metal which they purchase from the local shopkeepers. Most of these blacksmiths are natives of Sylhet. Mustard oil is expressed by the ordinary bullock mill of Upper India. The industry has few followers outside the town of Silchar. Weaving and pottery are dealt with in the following paragraphs.

Lac.

Lac is only produced in the North Cachar Hills. It is generally reared on *vrhar* (*cajanus indicus*) and a plant called *kallibat*. The method of propagation is as follows: Pieces of stick lac containing living insects, are placed in baskets, and tied on to the twigs of the tree on which the next crop is to be grown. After a few days, the insects crawl on to the young branches and begin to feed and secrete the resin. They are left undisturbed for about six months, and the twigs encrusted with the secretion are then picked off. Two crops are generally obtained in the year, the first being collected in May and June, the second in October and November. The first crop is largely used for seed, and it is the second which supplies the bulk of the exported lac. Ants and the

caterpillars of a small moth sometimes do much damage to the insect, and a heavy storm at the time when they are spreading over the plant will destroy them altogether. The lac produced is exported in its crude state and is sold to the kaiyas of the Assam Valley.

Weaving is not practised as a home industry in the plains of Cachar as it is in the Assam Valley, and the great mass of the rural population are dressed in the cheap fabrics of Manchester, and not in home-made cloth. The Jugi caste is strongly represented, but few of them now touch the loom, and such clothing as is produced is for the most part woven by Manipuris, Kukis, Kacharis, Nagas, and Mikirs. The whole question of weaving in this Province has been dealt with at great length in a Monograph on the Cotton Fabrics of Assam, published at Calcutta by the Superintendent of Government Printing in 1897. The system followed in the Assam Valley is described on pages 30 to 51, and this is the system adopted by the Jugis on such occasions as they think fit to return to their traditional occupation, and occasionally also by the Manipuris. An alternative Manipuri process is described on page 77 and 78, and the Kuki and Kachari methods on pages 64—66. In the absence of elaborate plans and diagrams, descriptions of mechanical processes of this character are extremely difficult to follow, and those curious in the matter should refer to the monograph itself. Any person who really wishes to understand the way in which the work is done, would, however, be well advised to study the subject in person, and on the spot. Weaving.

Cotton cloths produced.

The following is a brief description of the more important local products of the loom. The *than* is a large, stout cloth made of white cotton thread, and used in the cold weather as a warm wrap. The ordinary size is 9′ by 4′ 6″, but it is sometimes 18′ in length and is worn double. The price ranges from As. 8 to Rs. 3. The *fanek* is a garment worn by Manipuri women. It is fastened under the arms above the bust, and reaches to a little below the knee. It is made of green or dark blue thread with red and yellow stripes, and the border is sometimes embroidered with flowers in cotton or silk. The price varies from Rs. 2-8 to Rs. 7. The *khesh* is a thick cloth, either, plain or striped, used as a coverlet for a bed, as a wrapper by men, and as a petticoat by women. *Kheshes* are generally from 5′ to 9′ in length by 3′ to 6′ in breadth, and cost from As. 8 to Rs. 3. The Manipuris also weave cheap mosquito curtains which are sold for from As. 8 to Re. 1-4 a set. The Kukis weave cloths called *pal*, which are not unlike the *khesh*, and most of their clothing, like that of the Mikirs and Nagas, is home made. A speciality of theirs is the *pari*, a kind of rug made of lumps of raw clean cotton woven into a course stout cloth and knotted tightly between the weft. The ordinary *pari* is about 8′ by 4′ and costs some five rupees.

Eri silk.

The Eri silk-worm is reared by Kacharis both in the plains and in the hills, but the cloth produced is generally intended for home wear and very little comes to market. The worm (*attacus ricini*) derives its name from the *eri* or castor-oil plant (*ricinus communis*) on which it is usually fed. From five to six broods are hatched out

in the year, those which spin their cocoons in November, February, and May yielding most silk. The females, when they emerge, are tied to pieces of reed, and are visited by the males who are left at liberty. The eggs are hatched in the house and take from a week to fifteen days to mature. As soon as the worms appear they are placed on a tray, which is suspended in a place of safety, and fed on the leaves of the castor-oil plant. When fully grown they are about $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long and of a dirty white or green colour. After the final moulting, the worms are transferred from the tray to forked twigs suspended across a piece of reed, and, when they are ready to spin, are placed on a bundle of dried plantain leaves or withered branches, which is hung from the roof of the hut. The matrix of the cocoon is very gummy, and the silk, which is of a dirty white colour, has to be spun not reeled off. Before this is done the cocoons are softened by boiling them in water and a solution of alkali. Empty cocoons yield about three-quarters of their weight in thread.

The earth used by potters is generally a glutinous clay, which is well moistened with water and freed from all extraneous substances. If it is too stiff, some clean, coarse hand is worked up with it. A well-kneaded lump of clay is then placed on the wheel, which is fixed horizontally, and made to rotate rapidly. As the wheel revolves, the potter works the clay with his fingers and gives it the desired shape. The vessel is then sun dried, placed in a mould, and beaten into final shape with a mallet, a smooth stone being held the while against the inner surface. It is then again sun dried, the surface is polished, Pottery.

and it is ready for the kiln. The collection of the clay and firewood, the shaping of the utensils on the wheel and the stacking of them in the kiln, form the men's portion of the work. The women do the polishing and the final shaping.

The instruments employed are the wheel (*chak*), which is about three feet in diameter and rotates on a piece of hard pointed wood fixed firmly in the ground, the mould (*hach* or *saf*) a hollow basin about 16 inches long by 8½ inches deep, the mallet (*mala* or *piteni*), and the polisher (*chaki*).

The Kumhars have abandoned their traditional occupation and taken to agriculture and only manufacture a few articles in their leisure hours. The most important Kumhar villages are Joynagar, Chatla, Banraj and Kalain in the *sadr* subdivision, and Rangauti, Matijuri, Bishnupur, and Siboottar in Hailakandi. The principal articles manufactured are cooking-pots, water-jars, plates, cups, and lamps. The pottery is, however, much inferior to that imported from Bengal.

Saw mills.

Apart from tea, the only factories in which European capital is invested, are the Lakhipur saw mills at Phulertal, and the Barak mills at Sonaimukh. The former had an average labour force of 127 in 1904, the latter of 80. The outturn consists principally of tea boxes, for which there is a large local demand. Tea boxes are also constructed by native carpenters in Silchar.

The fishing industry.

The fishing industry is not of very great importance, and is largely in the hands of Mahimals and Dom Patnis from Sylhet. There is no trade in salt fish, and the outturn from the local fisheries has to be supplemented with

dried, and even fresh fish, brought from the *haors* and rivers of Sylhet.

The following are the nets most commonly in use: (1) The *pelain* is a net in the form of the letter Y which is pushed through the water by the operator, as he walks along the bed of the fishery. Price As. 6 to Re. 1. (2) The *jhinti* is a large variety of the *pelain* which is worked from a boat. Price Rs. 2 to Rs. 8. (3) The *khuti* is a square net, the opposite corners of which are fastened to the ends of two flexible bamboos which are crossed in the middle. These crossed bamboos are fixed to a stout handle by means of which the net is raised and lowered. Price Rs. 4 to Rs. 10. (4) The *jhaki* is a circular throw net weighted round the edge, and with a rope attached to the centre. It is thrown flat on the surface of the water, and the weights then sink and draw the outer edges of the net together. Price Rs. 3 to Rs. 6. (5) The *hurajal* is a drag net from 2 to 4 yards wide and 10 to 25 yards long. Price Rs. 20 to Rs. 80. (6) The *nupül* or Manipuri net is used both as a *khuti jal* and as a drag net, and costs from As. 8 to Rs. 3. The traps used are of two kinds. The *hogra* is a triangular shaped basket filled with twigs and brushwood, which is sunk in the bed of a stream; the *doo* is of various shapes and sizes and is worked on the principle of a lobster pot. The *polo* is like a large wicker work wine-glass which is dabbed on the mud by the person working it, any fish caught being removed through the stem.

Fisheries. The fisheries of Cachar are divided into two main classes. The Barak, the Ghagra, the Sonai Rukni, the Chiri, and thirty-six more of the larger and more important

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fisheries, are put up to auction and sold to the highest bidder. The remaining fisheries, of which there are no less than 805, are settled for a term of years with the persons who on equitable grounds appear to have the strongest claims to settlement. The revenue assessed varies from Re. 1 to Rs. 200, but in most cases is from Rs. 5 to Rs. 15. The purchaser or settlement holder of the fishery is allowed to charge the following rates on the nets or traps used. The higher rates quoted are for fisheries valued at more than Rs. 50 per annum. *Pelain*, As. 4 and As. 2; *jhinti*, As. 6 and As. 4; *khuti*, As. 12 and As. 8; *jhaki*, As. 12 and As. 8; *hura*, Rs. 5 and Rs. 4; *nupül*, As. 8, and As. 4; *hogra* and *doo*, As. 4 and As. 2; each fishing boat, Rs. 8-8 and Rs. 2.

The following are the best eating fish found in the district:—rui (*labeo rohita*), chital (*notopterus chitala*), hilsa (*clupea ilisha*), sol (*ophiocephalus striatus*), magur (*clarias magur*), kai (*anabas scandens*), pufta (*callichrous bimaculatus*), vacha (*eutropiichthys vacha*).

In the hills the Kukis and Kacharis use a throw net called *len* or *jegeding* which is similar to the *jhaki* of the plains. The Kacharis also buy a long net called *jegalao* from the inhabitants of Nowgong, which they stretch across a river, so that any fish swimming up or down it become entangled in its meshes. Traps are also set at dams and in swiftly flowing water.

CHAPTER VI.

ECONOMIC CONDITION OF THE PEOPLE, COMMUNICATIONS, TRADE, TOWNS, AND LOCAL BOARDS.

Subletting—Wages—Prices—Economic Condition of the people—Social restrictions—Communications—Railways—Roads—Inspection bungalows—Bridle paths—Ferries—Water communication—Post and Telegraph—Trade—Towns—Local Boards.

Subletting fairly common.

THE system under which cultivators in Cachar have been allowed to hold waste land at low rates of revenue has been favourable to the growth of a tenant class. The easy terms on which land could be obtained encouraged the early settlers to extend their holdings, and the revenue assessed has not been high enough to compel them to relinquish land they did not actually require. Statistics of subtenancy were recorded at the last settlement, and showed that in the *sadr* tahsil 13 per cent. of the land under the cultivation of ordinary crops was held by tenants; in the Hailakandi tahsil 18 per cent.; and in the Katigara tahsil 20 per cent. The total area held by subtenants according to the returns was only 16 per cent.; but the settlement officer was of opinion that 25 per cent. would probably have been nearer to the mark.

Subletting is by no means common in the older parganas and the country near Silchar, as the *mirasdars* in this portion of the district have little land to spare. Tenants are proportionately most numerous in the Banraj, Lakhipur, and Chatla Haor parganas of the *sadr* tahsil; the Vernerpur pargana in the south of the Hailakandi valley; and the Kalain, Jalalpur, and Gumra parganas in the north-west corner of the Katigara tahsil. The rents paid are said to vary from Rs. 2-4-0 to Rs. 6-12-0 per acre, and cases not infrequently occur in which landlords demand and obtain them in advance. On the other hand, abatements or remissions are allowed when there is a failure or destruction of the crop. The selling value of ordinary rice land was reported by the settlement officer to range from Rs. 60 to Rs. 135 an acre. The following figures recorded at the census of 1901 give a fairly correct idea of rural society in the plains portion of the district: Cultivating land-holders, 158,080; non-cultivating landholders, 2,109; cultivating tenants, 80,256. Dependents as well as workers are included in each case. The number of tenants suggests that the settlement officer was right in doubting the accurary of his statistics of subtenancy. The large number of cultivating landholders shows that Cachar is still a country of peasant proprietors, and that the landlord class is still numerically a small one.

Wages.

The bulk of the inhabitants of Cachar belong to castes which in other parts of India are employed as labourers. The facilities for obtaining land have, however, been so great that they have succeeded in rising to the position of peasant proprietors, or, at any rate, of cultivators; and

labour is in consequence both scarce and dear. The total number of persons supported by general labour in the Cachar Plains at the census of 1891 was only 8,751. Ten years later it was but 4,626, or barely 1 per cent. of the total population, as compared with nearly 7 per cent. in the Province of Bengal. The natural result is that wages are extremely high. Even in 1876, a common labourer was given as much as Rs. 7 per mensem in addition to his food. The rates quoted at the present day range from Rs. 4 to Rs. 8 per mensem with food, and from Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 if the man is required to feed himself. The wage for daily labour ranges from As. 4 to As. 8 a day, but, in spite of the high rates offered, it is the common complaint that labourers are scarce and difficult to procure. In the Hailakandi subdivision it is said that though the vast majority of the people are of a very low class, they decline to work for hire, either because they are *mirasdars* themselves or the relations of *mirasdars*.

Mirasdar is a sufficiently high-sounding title, but all that it connotes is that the man in question holds direct from Government. The holding is often not more than two or three acres in extent, and the great majority of the *mirasdars* drive the plough themselves, and differ in no respects from the ordinary raiyat of the Assam Valley. By old custom, which dated from the time of the Kachari Rajas, the ownership of land carried with it the obligation to supply porterage to Government. This practice was only recently abolished, but in spite of the fact that the bulk of the *mirasdars* of Cachar belong to castes which rank low in the Hindu social

scale, that nearly all of them cultivate their land with their own hands, and that the work in question was sanctioned by ancient usage dating back to the times of native rule, the great mass of the villagers preferred to suffer pecuniary loss to undertaking work which in their estimation was degrading. It seems to have been originally the practice for the wealthier *mirasdars* to bribe their poorer neighbours to act as coolies, by the offer of a bonus ranging from Re. 1 to Re. 1-8 per day, in addition to the wage of 6 annas received from the employer. Subsequently all the labour was provided by natives of Sylhet, under the control of daffadars, who appropriated a portion of the bonus paid for the coolie. The system of impressment has been discontinued since 1904, but the enormous price paid for unskilled labour suggests that the general level of prosperity in the district must be unusually high. In the North Cachar subdivision labour is still fairly cheap, and is paid from As. 2 to As. 4 a day. When the work is given out on contract the charge for weeding an acre of land varies from Re. 1 to Rs. 2. The Kacharis are the principal employers of labour in the hills, and engage Rangkhol or Bete Kukis, Mikirs, or Nagas. The Kacharis seldom work for hire themselves, and never except amongst their own people.

Prices. During the last forty years there has been a marked rise in the price of rice. In the ten years ending with 1872, 20·2 seers of rice were on the average to be procured for a rupee. In the next decade, the average sank to 18·5; then to 14·9; and in the ten years ending with 1902, to 11·9. This period was, however, one of considerable

stringency; the Cachar market was no doubt affected by the prices ruling in other parts of India, and it is doubtful whether the average for the current decade will reach so high a level. Twenty-three seers of rice were, for instance, procurable for a rupee at Hailakandi during the second half of February, 1905. Rice is generally appreciably cheaper at Hailakandi than at Silchar. This is, however, probably due to the fact that Hailakandi is only a small village in a rice-growing valley. The total volume of business transacted there is very small, and in the absence of any demand in the village, prices tend to keep low. Salt has cheapened considerably of recent years, but pulse shows a steady tendency to rise. Further details with regard to prices will be found in Table X.

Economic condition of the people.

The economic condition of the people must be considered fairly satisfactory. The soil is fertile, the rainfall regular and abundant, and the bulk of the cultivated land lies above the risk of flood. Communications are fair, and last and most important fact of all, the cultivator finds a market for his produce at the various bazars scattered about the district, to which the garden coolies come to satisfy their wants. At the time of the last re-settlement, an attempt was made to divide the villagers into the following five classes: (1) *Mirasdars* who derive their chief income from rents; (2) *Mirasdars* who sublet part of their land but are substantial cultivators themselves; (3) *Mirasdars* who cultivate the whole of their land and neither sublet nor rent; (4) *Mirasdars* who have to rent land in addition to their own holdings; (5) Tenants who own no land. Less than 2 per cent.

of the total number were included in the first two classes. Nearly two-thirds of the whole fell in the category of peasant proprietors who neither paid nor received rent, less than a seventh in Class IV., and rather moret han a quarter were found to be landless tenants. The actual figures recorded, which only refer to the householders themselves and not to those dependent on them, are as follows: Class I, 73; Class II, 593; Class III, 22,494; Class IV, 5,882; Class V, 9,200. They are described by the settlement officer as having no pretensions to accuracy, though they may be taken as a fair approximation to the truth.*

Is indebtedness common?

The extent to which indebtedness exists is a question of some importance, but is one with regard to which it is difficult to obtain reliable information. The local revenue officers, who have been recently consulted, state that from 60 to 75 per cent. of the population are in debt; though they admit that in the majority of cases the debtor could discharge his obligations, if he would take service or do other work when not engaged on agriculture. It is difficult to believe that these statements can be correct. The land revenue assessment is light, and only amounts to Re. 1-8-5 per head; the incidence of the excise revenue was only Re. 0-8-11 per head in 1902-03; and there is a large foreign population who must, to a great extent, supply their wants from the produce of the villagers. On June 30th, 1903, there were 71,573 adult coolies in the Cachar Plains, and assuming—an estimate that seems moderate enough—that each of them

* *Vide* Cachar Re-assessment Report forwarded to the Chief Commissioner with letter No. 2987, dated 8th July, 1898, from the Officiating Director of Land Records.

spent Rs. 25 a year on the products of the district, they would put some 18 lakhs of rupees in circulation amongst the villagers. This would amount to Rs. 6-8 per head for each man, woman and child in the plains of Cachar outside tea gardens and Silchar town in 1901.

The settlement officer says no. In a matter of this kind considerable weight must be attached to the opinion of the settlement officer, Rai Sarat Chandra Banerji Bahadur. His estimate differs entirely from that submitted by the local revenue officials, and on *a priori* grounds would seem to be much nearer to the truth.

> "In regard to the actual indebtedness of the people, it is not of course very easy to form an estimate. The point was one of the items set down for enquiry during the classification operations, and has been noted upon more or less carefully in regard to every village. The statement of the *mirasdars* themselves in such a matter had to be accepted with considerable reserve. Large allowances had to be made for the natural anxiety to convince the assessing officer that, generally speaking, the people were in an abject state of poverty. The fact that there were evident signs to the contrary had necessarily no deterrent effect against sweeping statements of misery, or against the assertion that, unless the rates of assessment were reduced to what they were before the current settlement, everybody would starve. Rather careful enquiries were made in the Katigara tahsil as to the number of persons actually in debt in each village, and tested by the existence of money bonds; and the result would go to show that the number of householders who had contracted debts formed about 10 per cent. of the whole, and that about a tenth of these, or 1 per cent., were rather heavily in debt."

Rates of interest. According to the same authority, the rate of interest varies with the amount of money borrowed. For sums under Rs. 20 the usual rate is 75 per cent., though in parts of the *sadr* tahsil it is only 60 per cent, and in the Vernerpur pargana, 48 per cent. For sums between Rs. 20 and Rs. 50, 75 per cent. is occassionally paid; but 48 or 60 per

cent. is the more usual rate. For loans of between Rs. 50 and Rs. 100, the rate varies from 30 to 60 per cent., and is usually about 48 per cent. Money is borrowed for the purpose of paying for a wife, or land, or cattle, or lawyer's fees, and sometimes to pay land revenue. The last-named obligation is, however, usually discharged by the sale of surplus paddy, vegetables, poultry, goats, and even cattle. In 1902, the Deputy Commissioner reported that there had been a marked advance in the economic condition of the district. Ready-made coats and shirts had come into common use, and there was a large demand for boots, umbrellas, cigarettes, and other foreign luxuries. Judged from some points of view the standard of comfort is still perhaps not high. The food eaten by the villagers is cheap and simple; their houses are small, dark, and ill-ventilated; their dress is not elaborate or costly. It seems, however, fairly clear that the wealth-producing capacities of the people are but slightly taxed, and that they have a great reserve of labour still untapped. A large proportion of the villagers grow little else but rice, and it is obvious that it does not take a full year's work to raise a harvest of that cereal. In a district where, a couple of years ago, a cooly impressed for Government could earn from one-and-a half to two rupees a day, it is difficult to believe that there could be much of poverty or debt.

North Cachar. The economic condition of the Kacharis, Nagas, and Jansen Kukis, is described as satisfactory. They grow enough rice to last them through the year, there are patches of sugarcane and vegetables round their houses, and in the semi-permanent Naga villages there are

gardens of guavas, mangoes, pomegranates, and peaches. The Mikirs, who are, however, a comparatively small community, are said to be most improvident and unthrifty and to be nearly all of them in debt. Their creditors are the Kaiyas of Assam, who give them advances and buy their cotton at much below the market value. Neither they nor the Rangkhol Kukis grow enough rice to last them through the year, and the quantity of opium they consume is a very serious drain on their resources.

PUNJAB, CIVIL SECRETARIAT LAHORE

Social restrictions

There seem to be few restrictions on trades and handicrafts in Cachar. Jugis have almost entirely given up their traditional occupation of weaving, with the idea that this abstention will raise them in the social scale. In the Assam Valley a large part of the clothing worn by the people is made at home, but in Cachar the Manipuris are the only persons who utilize the leisure hours of their women in this way. The rearing of silkworms is said to be restricted to the Kacharis, and in this way another useful source of wealth is closed to the people of the plains.

Communications. Steamers.

Prior to the construction of the Assam-Bengal Railway, communications with the outside world were kept up by steamer. During the rainy season big steamers came up the Barak to Silchar, but in the cold weather there is often barely three feet of water in the channel, and at this season of the year the journey from Calcutta to Silchar occupied five days. On the opening of the railway, this slow and irksome journey was reduced at once to 33 hours, passengers travelling by steamer from Chandpur to Goalundo, and thence by the Eastern Bengal State Railway to Calcutta. The steamer service

is still maintained, the vessels being owned and managed by the India General Steam Navigation Company and the Rivers Steam Navigation Company. The ports of call in Cachar for the large steamers which ply on the Barak are Badarpur, Siyaltek, Jatingamukh, and Masimpur. In the rains, feeder steamers go up the Barak from Silchar to Lakhipur; up the Madhura to Chandighat; up the Ghagra to the Hattia rocks; and up the Katakhal to Kukichara.

Railways. The Assam-Bengal Railway enters the district at a point a little to the east of Badarpur junction, which is 252 miles from Chittagong. Here the line divides, and a branch line runs south of the Barak, past Katakhal, Salchapra, and Ghagra to Silchar, which is 18 miles from Badarpur. The main line after leaving the junction crosses the Barak on a magnificent bridge, which is 454 yards in length, and had the foundations of its piers carried to a depth of 80 feet below the bed of the river. It then winds its way up the Jatinga valley, and so makes its way through the North Cachar Hills into Assam. The following is a list of the stations in the district north of the Barak; the figures in brackets show the mileage from Chittagong: Bihara (262); Damchara (271); Harangajao (283); Jatinga (294); Haflang (303); Mahur (312); Maibang (327); Langting (343); Hathikhali (355). Lumding in the Nowgong district, which is the junction for the Gauhati branch, is 12 miles beyond Hathikhali.

The Hill section runs for the most part through shale of the worst description, often intermixed with bands of kaolinite, which swells when exposed and causes

heavy slips; or exerts immense pressure on the sides of tunnels. To counteract this pressure, very heavy masonry was required; cuttings had to be arched in, and special measures taken to allow the drainage to escape. Though the hill section is only 113 miles in length, it contains 24 tunnels, 7 covered ways, and 74 major bridges, the longest being 650 feet, the highest 113 feet above the river bed; while many of the banks and cuttings approach 100 feet in height and depth respectively. Apart from the special engineering difficulties, great inconvenience was experienced, owing to the absence of local labour and food supplies, and to the unhealthiness of the country traversed. At one time in addition to the railway material, food for over 25,000 men had to be carried into the hills on elephants, bullocks, ponies, and other pack animals. The result is that the cost of construction of the hill section has been extremely heavy. In the plains, the railway has brought Cachar, which, prior to 1898, was a remote and isolated district, within easy reach of Calcutta. In the hills it has already begun to attract settlers to the valleys of the Jatinga, the Doiang, and the Mahur; but it has not yet been open long enough for its effects to be fully felt.

Roads.

The heavy rainfall combined with the extraordinarily tenacious character of the clay, has always rendered the question of road communications a serious problem in Cachar. In 1853, there was only one road in the district, and that had not been repaired for years.* In 1866 there were six roads under the ferry fund board,

* Statistical Account of Assam by W. W. Hunter, Vol. II, page 425.

which had an aggregate length of between 50 and 60 miles.* In 1904, there were altogether 201 miles of road and 193 miles of bridle path in the plains portion of the district. In spite of the existence of all these miles of cart road, goods are still, to a great extent, carried by cooly or pack bullock. In the matter of wheeled traffic, the inhabitants of the Surma Valley have shown a singular lack of initiative and enterprise. Driving roads have been in existence for many years, yet in 1902 there were only 260 carts in Cachar, as compared with upwards of 3,500 in the district of Darrang. In this respect their neighbours on the east have put them quite to shame. Carts were first sent into Manipur in 1896, the people were not slow to grasp the advantage of wheeled transport, and a few years later there were no less than 1,700 carts plying between Imphal and the Assam Valley.

Principal roads in Plains. The trunk road enters Cachar at Badarpur, 51 miles from Sylhet, and crosses the Manipur frontier at Jirighat, 40 miles from Badarpur. There are dâk bungalows at Badarpur, Salchapra, and Silchar, and inspection bungalows at Salchapra, Lakhipur, Jirighat and Banskandi. Most of the minor streams are bridged, but ferries ply across the following rivers; the figure in brackets represents the mileage from Badarpur: Dhaleswari (2); Pola (8); Katakhal (6); Ghagra (12); Barak (20); Chiri (27); and Jiri (40). From Silchar, a driving road runs south, then turns west and passes Hailakandi, and finally runs due north till it meets the trunk road a little to the east

* Dacca Blue Book, page 366.

of Badarpur. North of Hailakandi, the Burnimukh road takes off on the east to Salchapra railway station. South of Hailakandi, two roads, which ultimately merge in one and sink to the status of a bridle path, run towards the Lushai Hills, and there are numerous minor roads and bridle paths branching off east and west, which have been constructed to serve the various tea gardens in the vicinity. East of Silchar there is the Maniarkhal road, which is not fit for wheeled traffic after Sonaimukh, and several bridle paths. North of the Barak there is the Natwanpur bridle path, which runs westward to the Jaintia Parganas, the Damchara, Nemotha, Sibarbund, and Baladhan paths, with various other minor paths branching from them. The road system is, however, too complicated to be described in detail, and can be more readily understood by referring to the map which accompanies this volume.

In addition to the ones already mentioned, there are inspection bungalows at Bikrampur and Gumera on the Natwanpur road; at Barkhala on the Jatinga valley road; at Tikalpur on the Durganagar road; at Udharband on the Scottpur Udharband road, at Sonaimukh on the Maniarkhal road; at Narainpur on the Burnimukh road, at Lala, Katlichara, Jalinga, and Maragang on the Jhalnachara road; and at Kanglai on the Aijal road. Inspection Bungalows.

In the North Cachar Hills there is a bridle path from Haflang to the hot springs, which is continued through Jowai to Shillong. There are rest-houses at the following places; the figures in brackets show the mileage from Haflang: Gunjong (16); Derebara (24½); Baga (32); Khorungma (40½); Hot springs (52). From Paths in North Cachar.

Gunjong there is a bridle path to Doiangmukh (42 miles), and from Doiangmukh to the hot springs (40 miles). There are no rest-houses on either of these paths. From Maibang a bridle path runs to Baladhan, 56 miles away, with rest-houses at Guilong (8 miles), Laishung ($17\frac{1}{2}$ miles), and Hangrum ($26\frac{1}{2}$ miles). From Laishung a path strikes eastward to the border of the Naga Hills district 21 miles away.

Ferries. The extreme rapidity with which the rivers rise after rain, renders the construction of permanent bridges over the larger streams a matter of some difficulty and of great expense. Ferries are in consequence largely used, and there are over 100 in the plains portion of the district. In the cold weather, when the rivers fall, they are often spanned by temporary bamboo bridges.

In addition to the lines of steamers to which reference has been already made, country boats play an important part in the transport business of the district. They are of the ordinary heavy type which covers the rivers and streams of Eastern Bengal. The following statement shows the navigable rivers of the district, and the highest point to which a boat of four tons burthen can proceed in the rains and in cold weather :—

NAME OF RIVER.	HIGHEST POINT TO WHICH BOAT OF 4 TONS BURTHEN CAN PROCEED.	
	In cold weather.	In rains.
Amjur	Not navigable	Up to Thaukim punji.
Badri	do.	Narainpur Tea Estate.
Barak	Tipaimukh	Kacharbali.
Bohali	Not navigable	Thaukim punji.
Chiri	do.	Joypur bazar.
Dalu	do.	Dalugram Tea Estate.
Dhaleswari Katakhal	do.	Bhairabicharamukh.
Ghagra	do.	Barajalinga bazar.
Jatinga	do.	Balichara Tea Estate.
Madhura	do.	Pathichara Tea Estate.
Mara Dhaleswari ..	do.	Ainakhal Tea Estate.
Rukni	do.	Lushai boundary.
Salganga	do.	Derby Tea Estate.
Sonai	Maniarkhal Tea Estate.	Chhotanatia.

The following statement shows how enormous was the development of postal business during the last forty years of the century; nearly 35 letters and post-cards being delivered in 1903-04 for every one that came to hand in 1861-62.:—

Number of post offices in 1903-04.	Number of letters and post-cards omitting thousands delivered in			Number of Savings Bank accounts in		Balance at the credit of the depositors.	
	1861-62.	1870-71.	1903-04.	1871-72.	1903-04.	1871-72.	1903-04.
						Rs.	Rs.
30	20	71	694	11	3,808	6,300	7,08,000

The mail is brought by the Assam-Bengal Railway from Calcutta to Silchar, and distributed by runners to the different post offices in the plains. A statement showing the places at which post and telegraph offices are situated will be found in the Appendix.

The savings bank has also made much progress, and considering the low rate of interest allowed and the scarcity of capital in the district, the volume of deposits is considerable. The figures given for 1872 were returned after the bank had only been open for a short time; but on the data then before him the Collector hazarded the opinion that the bank was not likely to succeed at all.

External Trade. The import trade is chiefly in the hands of foreign shopkeepers, the most important articles brought into the district being rice, which is required for the large cooly population, flour, betel-nuts, salt, sugar, *ghi*, cotton piece-goods, kerosine oil, coal, and iron and steel. The only important articles of export are tea, which is shipped direct from the gardens, and timber and other forest produce. More than half of the total weight of the trade still (1903-04) enters or leaves the district by water. Manipur exports to Cachar timber and other forest produce, cattle, and Indian piece-goods; and receives in return European piece-goods and twist, dried fish, and betel-nuts. Forest produce is floated down the rivers. Other articles are carried on men's backs or sometimes on pack bullocks.

Internal Trade. The internal trade of the district is carried on at markets which are held on certain specified days in the week, at the more important of which there are generally

several permanent shops. After Silchar itself, where there are upwards of 470 shops, the principal business centres are Udharband on the Madhura river, Sonaimukh at the junction of the Sonai and the Barak in the Sonapur pargana, and Barkhala near the Jatinga river. A list of the bazars, showing the days of the week on which they are held, and a list of all places in which there are three or more permanent shops will be found in the Appendix. Most of the shopkeepers are natives of Sylhet, Bengal, or the United Provinces, and very few of the indigenous inhabitants of the district have attempted to appropriate any portion of the profits that accrue from retail trade. The number of Marwari merchants is also very small. The village shopkeeper usually deals in grain and pulse, *ghi*, oil, sugar, molasses, salt, tobacco, spices, umbrellas, and piece-goods. The villagers come to the bazars on market days, bringing with them rice or paddy, fruit, vegetables, goats, and poultry. In addition to the weekly markets, a large fair is held every year in March on the north bank of the Barak opposite Badarpur. Upwards of 15,000 people are said to attend, and there is a considerable amount of business done.

Towns: Silchar.

Silchar is the only place in the district which has any pretensions to the name of town. It is situated on the left bank of the Barak in 24°,49′N. and 92°,48′E. and commands a charming view down the river, which is dotted with the sails of native craft and lined with groves of the areca palm, while, a little to the north, the purple hills of North Cachar rise sharply from the plain.

The town itself has a somewhat tumble-down

appearance, and, with the exception of the church and the new circuit house, does not contain a single building of any size or dignity. The houses of the Europeans stand round a piece of open ground, which becomes very wet and swampy in the rains. The business quarter lies a little to the south, but there are few substantial merchants in Silchar. There is a considerable trade in rice, European piece-goods, timber, and other forest produce. Tea boxes are manufactured by native firms, and there is a small printing-press, at which a vernacular paper is published. The place has been growing steadily in size during the last thirty years, the population at the last four enumerations being 1872, 4,925; 1881, 6,567; 1891, 7,523; and 1901, 9,256. As in most of the other towns in Assam the bulk of the population is of foreign birth. Silchar was constituted a municipality under Act V (B.C.) of 1876 in 1893. There are twelve commissioners, eight of whom are non-officials and are elected, while four are nominated, and two hold office *ex-officio*. The principal tax imposed is one ranging from 6¼ to 7½ per cent. on the annual value of holdings. From Table XVII it will be seen that much of the municipal revenue has been raised from the fees levied in the market and at the ferry, and from grants from other funds. The total area of Silchar is 2·4 square miles, and it is served by 18 linear miles of road, 10 of which are metalled. The town is lighted by 98 lamps, and there are three reserved tanks and four wells from which drinking water can be obtained.

Hailakandi. Hailakandi is not large enough to be dignified by the name of town. It contains the subdivisional court,

thana, and lock-up, a dispensary, high school, and tahsil office, but the total population of the place in 1901 was only 1,338 souls. It is, in fact, simply a small village surrounded on every side by rice fields.

Haflang. Haflang is situated on the top of a hill, 3,117 feet above the level of the sea, on the north side of the main section of the Barail range. The subdivisional magistrate's court was transferred to this place from Gunjong in 1896, as it then began to acquire considerable importance as the headquarters of the hill section of the Assam-Bengal Railway. The station is prettily laid out, and commands a fine view of some of the highest peaks of the Barail, whose summits are nearly 6,000 feet above the level of the sea. The place is, however, entirely a creation of the railway, and apart from the presence of the Subdivisional Officer and his staff, has no importance.

Local Boards. In 1872, the management of the district roads was entrusted to a committee presided over by the Deputy Commissioner. The funds at their disposal were partly obtained from tolls and ferries on local roads and other miscellaneous sources, but principally from grants made by the Bengal Government from the amalgamated district road fund. In 1874, when Assam was erected into a separate Administration, the Government of India assigned one-seventeenth of the net land revenue for local purposes. The district improvement fund was then started, and the administration of its resources was as before entrusted to the Deputy Commissioner assisted by a committee. The actual amount placed at their disposal was not large, and, in 1875-76, the total income of

the district funds of the province was only Rs. 1,85,000, which was a small sum in comparison with the twelve and a half lakhs of rupees received by the Local Boards in 1903-04. In 1879, a Regulation was passed, providing for the levy of a local rate, and the appointment of a committee in each district to control the expenditure on roads, primary education, and the district post. Three years later the district committees were abolished by executive order, and their place was taken by boards established in each subdivision, which are the local authorities in existence at the present day. The Deputy Commissioner is Chairman of the board of the headquarters subdivision, and the Subdivisional Officer is Chairman of the Hailakandi Board. The Local Boards are entrusted with the maintenance of all roads within their jurisdiction, except the provision and maintenance of local staging bungalows and dispensaries, and the supervision of village sanitation, vaccination, and the district post. They are also in charge of primary education, subject to the general control of the Education Department, and are empowered to make grants-in-aid to schools of higher grade, subject to certain rules. For these purposes, they have placed at their disposal the rate which is levied under the Assam Local Rates Regulation of 1879, at the rate of one anna per rupee on the annual value of lands, as well as the surplus income of pounds and ferries, and some minor receipts. This income is supplemented by an annual grant from provincial funds. The principal heads of income and expenditure are shown in Table XXII.

CHAPTER VII.

GENERAL ADMINISTRATION.

Native system of land revenue administration and early British settlements—The settlement of 1884—The settlement of 1900—Expansion of settled area since 1830—Waste land available for settlement—Disforestation—Different forms of land tenure—Incidence of land revenue—Land revenue collection—Town lands—Opium—Country spirit—Ganja—Laopani—Income-tax—Stamps—Public works—General administration—Criminal and civil justice—Registration—Volunteering—Police—Jail—Education—Medical.

THE following account of the revenue system of Cachar under native rule, and of the earlier settlements made by British officers, is reproduced from the Statistical Account of Cachar by Sir W. W. Hunter :— **Land revenue.**

The following paragraphs are mainly condensed from the 'Annual Report on the Revenue Administration of Cachar for 1871-72' :—The first settlement of Hindus in the District is placed about 200 years ago, in the reign of Raja Suradarpa Chandra. The tradition runs that in his reign, an Assami Hindu named Bikram Rai was sent from the capital of Dimapur into that part of Cachar now known as Bikrampur, to encourage the settlement of Bengali immigrants from the west. Among other founders of colonies, the names are mentioned of Asu Thakur from Pratapghar in Sylhet, and the ancestor of the family now represented by Gulal Khan Chaudhari from Tipperah. By the time that Kartik Chandra came to the throne, the number of

colonists was very considerable. At first the rents were extremely low, the earliest mentioned rates being a he-goat, a pair of fowls, a duck, and two cocoanuts from each holding, irrespective of its size. Subsequently the rent was fixed at 12 annas for each *hal* (about 4*d.* per acre). Kartik Chandra raised the rate for the *hal* to Rs. 3; and it is said that Gobind Chandra, the last of the Cachar Rajas, obtained from some lands as much as Rs. 6 per *hal*, or about 2*s.* 6*d.* per acre. The lands, which of course were originally under jungle, were settled not with individuals, but with corporations called *rajs*. Each *raj*, again, was subdivided into minor corporations or *khels*, which formed the real units of the revenue system. Each individual in the *khel* was held jointly and severally liable for the revenue assessed on the *khel*, and similarly each *khel* was responsible for the payments of its *raj*. The *khel* elected its own mouthpiece, known as a *mukhtar*. Certain portions of the area allotted to each *khel* was appropriated rent-free to persons of standing; and of the lands remaining, every man received as much as he could cultivate. The system of rent-free grants was discontinued by Gobind Chandra, but the influence and recognised position of the grantees endured long afterwards. In the early days of British administration the chief titles within the *khel* were sold by Government at the following rates :—*Chaudhari*, Rs. 100; *mazumdar*, Rs. 75; *lashkar*, Rs. 60; *bara-bhuiya*, Rs. 50; *majar-bhuiya*, Rs. 25. The head-men of the *raj* and *khel* were primarily responsible for the revenue, which was collected in the following fashion :—A Cachari peon was sent to the house of the head-man with a demand for payment. The head-man then sounded a drum, or fired a gun if the demand was urgent. When the people came together the revenue was forthwith collected. Defaulters, after being allowed a short respite, were arrested and brought before the Raja. If it appeared that they had no means, the sharers in the *taluk*, or separate estate, were invited to enter upon the defaulter's land, on condition of satisfying the arrears. If they declined, the holding was given to the *khel*. If the *khel* failed to pay, the land lapsed to the *raj*, which could not refuse. In no case were outsiders admitted. The term *khel* was also applied to certain localities, which either had to supply the Raja with certain definite commodities, such as betel-nuts or firewood, or the rents of which were assigned to certain functionaries of State. Thus *Paikan khel* was the name of an estate, the rent of which was devoted to the expenses of worshipping the goddess Ran Chandi; *Vishnughar khel* was appropriated to Lakshmi Narayan; *Bhisingsa khel*, to Shama or Kali.

Cachar lapsed to the British in 1830, and Captain Fisher assumed charge of the District in July of that year. He continued the native revenue system which he found in force. The terms were that for all cleared lands revenue should be paid at the rate of *sikka* Rs. 4-12, or Company's Rs. 5-2 per *kulba* or *hal* (about 2*s.* per acre); *bari* or the sites of houses, *chara* or garden-lands, and tanks, etc., were altogether exempt; while jungle was revenue-free for the first 1,000 days of its occupation, and then assessed at rates varying from Rs. 2-12 to Rs. 3-8 per *hal* (1*s.* 1*d.* to 1*s.* 5*d.* per acre). Captain Fisher appears to have made a rough survey of the cultivated lands under his charge, by which a total of 20,663 acres were assessed at *sikka* Rs. 20,101, equivalent to Company's Rs. 21,441, leaving an additional area of about 9,000 acres revenue-free as *baksha*, *debottar*, etc.

About the year 1834 there ensued a series of unusually wet seasons. The people were unable to cultivate their fields, and the revenue fell into heavy arrears. The attention of the Board of Revenue was called to the high rates of assessment, and in 1838 Major *Burns*, who had succeeded to the office of Superintendent on Captain Fisher's death, was instructed to make a new settlement on more easy terms. This settlement was based on Captain Fisher's imperfect survey. The period was for five years, terminating in April 1843. The highest rate of rice-land was Rs. 3 per *hal* (about 1*s.* 3*d.* per acre); the rent for *chara* land was fixed at Rs. 2-8 per *hal* (about 1*s.* per acre); *bari* land remained revenue-free as before; while jungle land was settled revenue-free for 1,000 days, and thereafter at the current rates. The area assessed was 36,430 acres, of which 6,261 acres were jungle; the revenue fixed was Rs. 24,974, rising to Rs. 26,985 at the expiration of the term of settlement.

In 1841 Lieutenant (now General) Thuillier was deputed to survey the District, and the work was finished by the close of the following year. This survey comprised an area of 182,378 acres. The lands bordering the principal rivers and streams, to which cultivation was then limited, were actually measured and divided into 241 *mauzas*. For the rest, arbitrary lines were cut through the jungle, so far as it was reasonably supposed that the work of reclamation would extend in the immediate future; and the tracts included within these lines were marked on the map as *dags*. Great difficulties afterwards followed when the area of these *dags* was taken up for cultivation. The tea grants for the most part lay beyond the limits of the survey, and each grant when subsequently made was constituted an independent *mauza*.

In 1842 Deputy Collector Galak Chandra Rai Bahadur was specially deputed from Sylhet to make the new settlement which is known by his name. The term was to be for fifteen years; the rates fixed by the expiring settlement for cultivated lands were to be continued; the old settlement-holders were to be recognised; and the work was to be conducted in accordance with the results of the survey just completed. The Rai Bahadur's settlement comprised an area of 97,904 acres, of which 30,043 were jungle-lands; the revenue was fixed at Rs. 43,146, rising ultimately to Rs. 58,518. Both *chara* and *bari* lands were assessed at rates varying from Rs. 3 to Rs. 2 per *hal* (1*s.* 3*d.* to 10*d.* per acre); but all *lakhiraj* granted before the District came under British administration was strictly respected. Jungle land was assessed rent-free for the first five years, at Re. 1-8 per *hal* (7*d.* per acre) for the next five years, and at full rates for the concluding five years of the term. At the termination of the rent-free period, it was found that the *mirasdars* had taken up more jungle than they were able to cultivate. They were accordingly permitted by the Board of Revenue to relinquish portions of their holdings upon terms. But the reduction in the total of the revenue caused by such relinquishments was more than compensated by additional settlements of jungle-land, made from time to time to expire with the currency of the fifteen years' settlement. The number of new estates thus added was 1,458, with an area of 35,288 acres, and a revenue of Rs. 20,302. The general result was that in 1854-55, there were altogether 7,773 estates on the rent-roll of the District, paying a revenue of Rs. 67,660.

In 1855-56 Major Verner, who was then in charge of Cachar, effected the settlement of certain tracts of jungle land for a period of fifteen years, at rates varying from 4 annas to Rs. 3 per *hal*. Some of the terms of this settlement do not expire until the year 1879. Altogether 972 estates were settled by Major Verner, with an area of 70,216 acres, and an ultimate revenue of Rs. 37,123. By this means, when the Rai Bahadur's settlement expired in 1857-58, the total land revenue amounted to Rs. 81,676.

In 1858-59 a new settlement of the District was undertaken by Captain Stewart, the expiring settlement having been in the interval provisionally extended for one year. The new term was for twenty years, which will not expire until 1879. The proceedings were based upon Lieutenant Thuillier's survey; and a native surveyor, or *amin*, was deputed to measure lands not included in the map. For purposes of assessment all the cultivated lands were divided into two clssses, according to their

productive powers. The rates at which first-class land was assessed ranged from Rs. 3-8 to Rs. 2 per *hal* (about 1*s.* 5*d.* to 10*d.* per acre), according to advantages of situation; and those at which second-class land was assessed, from Rs. 3 to Rs. 1-8 per *hal* (about 1*s.* 3*d.* to 7*d.* per acre). Jungle-producing thatching grass and reeds was settled at the full rates charged for cultivated lands in the same neighbourhood. Forest land that required much clearing was settled rent-free for the first three years, and then at rates gradually rising to the full rates charged for adjacent land. The number of estates was reduced by amalgamation from 8,470 to 6,120, covering an area of 132,542 acres, and paying a minimum revenue of Rs. 90,631. These figures are exclusive of the jungle land settled previously by Major Verner. Fresh settlements of jungle land were made from time to time for periods terminating with Major Stewart's settlement in 1879.

The settlement of 1884.

Preparations for the next settlement were commenced in the cold weather of 1878-79, but the work was not completed till 1884. Each of the three tahsils of Silchar, Katigara, and Hailakandi, was divided into four circles, and rates were fixed in accordance with the assessment capacity of each circle. The rates for the first circle were the same in each tahsil, but for the other circles, there was a considerable difference between the tahsil rates, *e.g.*, fourth circle homestead land paid Rs. 6 per *hal* in Halikandi, but only Rs. 4-12 in Katigara. Land was divided into four classes: (1) homestead and garden; (2) cultivation, including land under san-grass; (3) tea; and (4) waste. The rate for tea varied from Rs. 6 to Rs. 7-2 per *hal*, and waste was uniformly assessed at Re. 1 per *hal*, or 8 annas 4 pies per acre. The acre rates assessed on homestead varied from 15 annas 9 pies to Re. 1-11-0, and on cultivation other than tea, from 12 annas 8 pie to Re. 1-7-6. The total increase of revenue brought out by the settlement

was Rs. 60,000 or nearly 38 per cent. The cost of the operations was Rs. 3,63,000, which swallowed up the whole of the enhancement for the first six years.

The settlement of 1900.

The current settlement, which was carried out between the years 1894 and 1899, came into force in April 1900, and will expire in 1915. In imposing rates, a distinction was drawn between land under rice and land under ordinary staples other than rice, and the village was, to some extent, abandoned as the unit of assessment, distinctions being drawn between good and bad rice land in the same village. The class of the village was, however, usually held to be the same as the class of the bulk of the rice-land of which it was composed; and homestead and land growing other crops than rice, followed the village class. The following statement shows the rates assessed per *bigha*,* and the proportion of land of each description falling in each class:—

	Homestead.		Rice.		Other Crops.		Waste.	
	Rate per bigha.	Percentage of total in.	Rate per bigha.	Percentage of total in.	Rate per bigha.	Percentage of total in.	Rate per bigha.	Percentage of total in.
	As.		As.		As.		As.	
Class I ...	13	46	11	42	8	37	2	38 (Classes I–II)
" II ...	11	28	9	30	7	30	1	
" III ..	8	17	7	19	5	19	...	60 (Classes III–IV)
" IV ...	6	9	5	8	4	14	...	
" V ...	...	...	4	1	...	...	...	...

* One acre is equivalent to 3·025 *bighas*.

The gross increase of revenue amounted to Rs. 1,43,944 or nearly 47 per cent., but in the greater part of the district the whole of this enhancement was not brought into force at once. In all villages in which the increase was as much as 33 per cent., the enhancement was spread over a period of either eight or twelve years. The total cost of the settlement was Rs. 3,92,000, which absorbed the whole of the increase of revenue for the first four years of its currency. An important feature of this settlement was the breaking up of the joint *mahals* owned by co-parcenary bodies, into *raiyatwari* holdings of the ordinary type. The change was appreciated by the people, and was carried out without difficulty.

Expansion of settled area since 1830.

The following statement shows in a concise form the area covered by each successive settlement and the initial revenue demand:—

	1830.	1838.	1843.	1859.	1884.	1900.
Settled area, acres ...	20,663	36,430	97,904	132,542	252,645	378,464
Revenue, Rs. ...	21,411	24,974	43,146	90,631	2,22,730	4,00,672

It is a noticeable fact that, though the acreage assessment in 1900 was higher than that imposed at most of the preceding settlements, it is almost identical with that in force no less than 70 years before. The enormous increase that has occurred in the settled area, is obscured by the fact that the above table only takes account of land actually under re-settlement at the time. It does not include revenue-free grants, or the estates that had been settled in fee simple, or under leases which

had still some time to run. The total settled area of the district in 1830 was 29,352 acres, but by 1902-03 it had risen to 607,466 acres, that is to say, in the comparatively short space of 72 years it had increased more than twenty-fold.

Settled waste land. Cachar differs from Assam Proper in the fact that waste land is held on specially low rates. In the Brahmaputra Valley land settled under the ordinary rules pays full rates of revenue whether under crop or not; and the result is that very little waste is held under ordinary patta.* In 1900, it was found that nearly 34 per cent. of the land held by ordinary villagers in Cachar was waste, and over 70 per cent. of the land included in the tea estates. The proportion of waste in the settled area of the district as a whole was no less than 51 per cent. The Settlement Officer was, however, of opinion that the great bulk of the waste land settled under ordinary lease was more or less unculturable, and was only fit for grazing or the growth of fuel.

Waste land available for settlement. The existence of a low rate for waste must obviously act as an inducement to take up land, and to retain it as long as there is any hope of bringing it under the plough, and the result is that the proportion of culturable land which is still unsettled is very small. The following statement shows the percentage of the total area of each tahsil at the last settlement which was (*a*) unsettled, and (*b*) classed not only as unsettled but also as culturable :—

* Nowgong, 1902-03. Total area settled at full rates excluding land settled with planters, 199,383 acres. Net cropped area excluding land cropped with tea, 197,273 acres.

	Percentage of total area unsettled.	Percentage of total area unsettled and culturable.
Silchar tahsil	12·16	6·0
Katigara "	13·07	4·6
Hailakandi "	7·86	3·2

The expression culturable is, however, somewhat loosely used, and the Settlement Officer admits that the only parganas in which there is really any unsettled land which is fit for cultivation, are Davidsonabad, Bhuban Hills, and Lakhipur, all of which lie on the outskirts of the *sadr* tahsil. There is a considerable area of so-called culturable unsettled land in parganas Haritikar and Lebherputa in the Katigara tahsil, and near the Chatla *haor*, but consisting as it does of marsh and fen, it would not do for permanent cultivation or habitation, though parts of it might perhaps afford a cold-weather crop.

Disforestation. There can be little doubt that there is a real and genuine demand for land in Cachar. To meet this demand, steps were taken to throw open to cultivation a portion of the forest reserves which occupy so large a proportion of the district. In 1896, the Dhaleswari reserve, which covered an area of 22,164 acres in pargana Vernerpur, was disforested.* Unfortunately a great part of this forest proved to be quite unfit for cultivation, and only about 7,000 acres were available for settlement. About 4,000 acres had been allotted by April 1st, 1902,

* The figure 22,164 acres includes two villages covering an area of 1,893 acres settled on the same terms.

the rates charged being 12 annas an acre for flat and 3 annas an acre for hilly land, with a revenue-free period of three years. In the following year 8,600 acres of the Barak reserve, which covered altogether an area of 75 square miles, were declared available for settlement. Only 1,300 acres were found to be fit for cultivation, and almost the whole of this area was very soon allotted. No revenue was charged for the first three years of the lease, but on the expiry of this period the land was assessed at the rate of 15 annas an acre. Two years later 6,728 acres, or more than half the total area of the Sonai reserve, were disforested. The greater part of this land was, however, included within the boundaries of a grant and had been wrongly formed into a reserve; and only about 1,800 acres were available for settlement. Practically the whole of this was allotted without delay. Similar concessions were made in the same year with regard to 10,500 acres of the huge Inner Line reserve, which covered an area of 509 square miles in the south-east corner of the district. The greater part of this land was reported to be culturable, and nearly 7,000 acres had been allotted by May 1st, 1902. Both of these settlements were made at the rate of 15 annas an acre. The net result of these operations was that about 18,600 acres were rendered available for settlement, of which 18,600 acres had been allotted by April 1st, 1902.

Various forms of tenure.

In the Assam Valley it has been for many years the policy of Government to settle waste land on favourable terms for the growth of tea, but this concession was not extended to those who wished to cultivate the ordinary staples of the Province. No such restriction was

originally in force in Cachar, and in the preceding pages it has been shewn that the practice of allowing a revenue free period when settling waste land, dates from the time when the British first took possession of the district. In 1864, the *Jangalburi* or waste land reclamation lease rules were sanctioned. For the first three years the land was revenue-free, during the next fifteen the rates varied from 8 annas to 12 annas an acre, and during the last twelve years the assessment was Re. 1-8 per acre. On the expiry of the lease the lessee, or his successor in interest, could only claim resettlement of such portion of the land as had been already cleared and cultivated, unless he had succeeded in bringing three-fourths of the estate under cultivation, when he was entitled to resettlement of the whole. In 1875, these rules were revised, and the term of the lease reduced to 20 years. The rates imposed were 2 years, revenue-free ; 4 years at 8 annas per acre; four years at 6 annas per acre, and 10 years at 12 annas per acre; and the clearance conditions were withdrawn. On the expiry of these leases the land was resettled at the full rates prevailing in the neighbourhood. The rules were superseded by those issued in 1894, which are still in force. A revenue-free period is no longer allowed except under the special orders of the Chief Commissioner, and theoretically the land becomes liable to assessment as soon as it has been taken up. A revenue-free period and reduced rates have, however, been granted to all settlers in the disforested area, and the number of new settlements of land in other portions of the district is necessarily small.

Special rules for settlement of tea lands

The first rules to be introduced into Cachar for the grant of land for tea cultivation, were the old Assam rules of 1854, which were extended to the district in 1856. One-fourth of the grant was exempted from assessment in perpetuity. The remaining three-fourths were granted revenue-free for 15 years, and then assessed at 3 annas an acre for 10 years and at 6 annas an acre for 74 years more, the total lease being thus for 99 years. Large tracts of land were taken up under these rules, but most of the owners took advantage of the permission accorded to them under the fee simple rules, to convert their leases into a fee simple tenure, and the total area now held under the 99-years' lease rules of 1854 is 25,728 acres.

The fee simple rules

The fee simple rules were first issued in 1861 and modified in the following year. Except under special circumstances grants were limited to an area of 3,000 acres, the land was put up to auction, and the upset price ranged from Rs. 2-8 to Rs. 10 per acre. These rules were in force till 1872. In 1874, revised fee simple rules were issued which raised the upset price to Rs. 8 per acre; but they were superseded by the thirty years' lease rules of 1876. In 1902-03, 142,751 acres of land were held in Cachar on fee simple tenure.

The thirty years' lease rules.

Under the thirty years lease rules the land is sold at an upset price of Re. 1 per acre, and is held for two years revenue-free. It then pays 3 annas an acre for the next four years, and 6 annas an acre for another four. For the next ten years it pays 8 annas, and for the last ten years of the lease Re. 1 per acre. The total area held on thirty years' lease in 1902-03 was only 5,038 acres, planters

in many cases having preferred to take up land under the *Jangalburi* rules of 1882 which did not differ materially from the rules of 1875. Under executive orders the issue of leases for thirty years under Section I of the Settlement Rules has been discontinued in the plains of Cachar.

Bakshas, etc.

Two other tenures require notice. Bakshas are grants of revenue-free land made by the Kachari Rajas to members of their own race. They are exempt from assessment so long as they are not alienated. In 1902-03, they covered an area of 1,227 acres. A special concession has also been made to a family of mirasdars in the Sonapur pargana, who were granted a remission of half their land revenue as a reward for good services performed on the occasion of the Lushai expedition of 1869. This concession extends to the generation subsequent to that of the original grantee, but the total area affected is little more than one square mile.

Incidence of land revenue.

The result of the low rate assessed for waste and the comparatively low rate assessed on cultivation, is that the incidence of land revenue is much lighter in Cachar than in Assam Proper. In Cachar the incidence per acre of the fully assessed area in 1902-03 was Re. 1-1-4; in Assam Proper it ranged from Rs. 2-1-10 to Rs. 2-10-3. The incidence per cultivated acre in Cachar in that year was Rs. 1-13-1; in Assam Proper it ranged from Rs. 2-6-10 to Rs. 3-0-0. The incidence per head of population was Re. 1-1-4 in Cachar, while in Assam Proper it ranged from Re. 1-11-10 to Rs. 2-7-1.

Land Revenue collection.

At the time of Mr. Mills' visit to the district in 1853, land revenue was collected at three tahsils situated at Silchar, Katigara, and Hailakandi. In 1859, Mr. Allen

reported that the revenue was collected with punctuality, and that recourse was seldom had to the distraint and sale of personal property. Land was not sold for arrears of revenue, but if an estate defaulted it could be transferred to any person who paid the arrears of the defaulter. This somewhat singular rule appears to have worked fairly well, and between 1853 and 1858 only 19 estates had changed hands in this manner. The three tahsils remained unchanged for many years, but owing to the extension of cultivation, and enhancements of the rates of revenue, the amount to be collected at the *sadr* tahsil had risen by 1901 to upwards of Rs. 2,35,000. Some inconvenience was experienced in collecting such a large sum at a single office, and in 1903 four *mauzas* were formed consisting of (1) Pargana Chatla Haor, (2) Pargana Banraj, (3) Parganas Rupairbally and Lakhipur, and (4) Parganas Bhuban Hill and Davidsonabad. The demand of the *sadr* tahsil was by this means reduced to Rs. 1,65,000. In 1905, the Katigara tahsil also was split up into three mauzas. Revenue is due in three instalments, one-fourth on August 1st, one-fourth on November 1st, and one-half on March 1st.

When a raiyat defaults, a notice of demand is served upon him.* If this proves insufficient, the moveable property, or, in the absence of a sufficient quantity of moveable property, the estate itself, can be attached and sold. In 1903-1904, notices of demand issued on account of 7 per cent. of the total land revenue demand, and

* The Deputy Commissioner has recently been authorised to dispense with this notice of demand, if he considers it desirable to do so, and to proceed at once to attachment.

property was attached on account of 4 per cent. The proportion of the land revenue on account of which property or land had actually to be sold was, however, only 0·1 per cent.

Silchar town was settled for a period of thirty years with effect from April 1902. The highest rates assessed per acre on trade sites were Rs. 75, rising in the eleventh year to Rs. 105; and on residential land Rs. 36, rising to Rs. 48. On certain special trade sites frontage rates were assessed varying from Rs. 3-8 to As. 8 per cubit. Under the rules now in force, waste land taken up for the first time within town limits is to be settled ordinarily for a term of thirty years, at a fair rent not exceeding the annual letting value of the site. The lease of the land applied for may, if the Deputy Commissioner thinks fit, be put up to auction and knocked down to the highest bidder. The rates assessed in Hailakandi are those imposed in ordinary first class villages. Town lands.

Opium is not much in favour with the inhabitants of the Surma Valley, and in 1902-03 the total revenue raised from opium in the Cachar Plains only amounted to Rs. 35,000. This is an insignificant sum in comparison with the Rs. 5,12,000 raised in Lakhimpur, a district which has a smaller population. The hill tribes of North Cachar, and more especially the Mikirs, are, however, much addicted to the drug. The total opium revenue raised per head of population (excluding persons censused on the railway) in the hills in 1902-03 was Rs. 2-3-9 as compared with Re. 0-1-4 per head of population in the plains. Details as to the number of shops and Opium.

revenue raised from opium in each subdivision will be found in Table XV.

The drug is generally swallowed in the form of pills, or mixed with water and drunk. *Madak* is made by mixing boiled opium with pieces of dried pan leaf, and stirring it over the fire. The compound is then rolled up into pills and smoked. *Chandu* is made out of opium boiled with water till the water has all evaporated, and is smoked like *madak* in the form of pills. Opium is not generally smoked in Assam, and this form of taking the drug is usually supposed to be more injurious than when it is simply swallowed.

Country-spirit. The still. Country spirit is manufactured by native methods and generally in what is known as the closed still. The apparatus employed consists of a large brass or copper retort which is placed over the fire, to the top of which is fitted an earthen jar. The wash is placed in the retort, and as it boils rises in the form of vapour into the earthen jar whence it passes down two tubes into two receivers where it is cooled and condenses into liquid. These tubes are so fixed to the receivers that the air cannot have access to the spirit, and though distillation does not proceed so rapidly, the liquor produced is stronger than that obtained from the open still.

Material employed. The material employed is either the flower of the *mohwa* tree (*bassia-latifolia*), which contains a very large proportion of sugar, or molasses and rice. *Mohwa* is generally used by up-country distillers, and, as the foreigners, who form a large part of the liquor-drinking population, prefer the *mohwa* spirit, its use is spreading amongst the Sunris who some years ago generally distilled from

molasses. The following are the proportions in which these ingredients are generally mixed: *mohwa* 30 seers and water 60 seers; or *mohwa* 25 seers, molasses 5 seers, and water 60 seers; or boiled rice 20 seers, molasses 10 seers, and water 80 seers. *Sustu*, the refuse wash which remains in the retort after the distillation, is sometimes used in place of water. *Muli*, a substance composed of leaves, roots, and spices, whose actual ingredients are not divulged by the villagers who manufacture it, is frequently added to the wash, which is put to ferment in large earthenware vessels, which, to economise space, are often sunk up to their necks in the floor of the shop. Large earthenware vessels are cleansed before they are filled with wash by heating them with hot ashes or ropes of straw which are allowed to smoulder for some hours inside; smaller vessels are usually washed with water. Fermentation takes three or four days in summer and a week in the cold weather, and the wash is then considered to be ready for the still. The process of distillation takes about three hours.

Different grades of spirit.

A retort of 40 gallons yields two gallons of spirit in an hour-and-three-quarters, three gallons in two-hours-and-a-quarter, and four gallons in three hours. The best and strongest spirit comes off first, and in the case of a brew of 30 seers of *mohwa*, the first 3½ gallons will be classed as *phul* if they are at once drawn off from the receiver. If they are allowed to remain while two more gallons are distilled, the whole 5½ gallons will be classed as *bangla*. The exact proportions vary, however, at the different shops, some distillers taking 4¼ gallons of *phul* or 5¼ gallons of *bangla* from 30 seers of *mohwa*

Occasionally only two gallons of spirit are distilled from 80 seers of *mohwa*, and the liquor is then called *thul*, is very strong, and is sold for one or two rupees a quart. *Thul* is also sometimes made by redistilling *bangla*. Only one kind of liquor is generally taken from each distillation, as, if the *thul* or *phul* were removed, the spirit subsequently distilled would be not only weak but impure. Strong liquor watered to reduce it to a lower strength is not considered palatable, and it seems to be the usual practice to distill the liquor at the actual strength at which it will be sold. One disadvantage of the cheaper kind of liquor is that it will not keep, and in four or five weeks it is said to lose all its spirituous qualities.

Number of shops and revenue.

	No. of shops.	Revenue. Rs.
1873-74	141	42,596
1879-80	72	27,317
1889-90	50	76,057
1899-1900	35	1,29,948

From the abstract in the margin it will be seen that a considerable expansion of the revenue under the head of country spirits has been accompanied by a great diminution in the facilities for obtaining liquor :—

For every four shops in 1873-74, there was only one in 1899-1900; yet like the Sibylline books, the aggregate value of the shops increased as their number was diminished. This was due to freer competition at the auction sales, which enabled Government to divert into the treasury a portion of the profits of the trade. Table XV shows the number of country-spirit shops in each subdivision, and the amount for which they are sold.

Reforms in excise administration.

Though few complaints have been received with regard to the administration of the liquor laws in Cachar, it cannot be denied that in the neighbourhood of some liquor shops, drunkenness and disorderly conduct are not uncommon. The attention of Government has been

more than once directed to the most effective measures for the mitigation of this evil. The outstill system is not theoretically the most desirable, but in a district like Cachar where communications in the rains are difficult it is not altogether easy to find anything to take its place. The following measures have recently been introduced with the object of reducing, as far as possible, the evils attendant on the liquor trade. A special excise establishment has been entertained, the vendor is required to arrange for an abundant supply of good drinking water near his shop, and his license can be withdrawn if he is twice convicted of allowing drunkenness and disorderly conduct near the still. The shops must be closed on market days and holidays at 4 P.M. in winter and 6 P.M. in summer. The maximum quantity of liquor which may be sold to a purchaser has also been reduced from six quart bottles at a time to three quart bottles in a day.

Ganja. Ganja is usually mixed with water, kneaded till it becomes soft, cut into small strips, and smoked. Ganja is fairly popular in the Surma Valley, and Cachar yields a larger revenue from this drug than any district in the Province except Sylhet. Full details with regard to the ganja revenue of each subdivision will be found in Table XV.

Laopani. *Laopani* or rice-beer is the national drink of the unconverted tribes. It is also taken by some of the humbler Hindu castes, and is largely used by garden coolies if facilities are not afforded to them for obtaining country-spirit. The following is the usual system of manufacture followed. The rice is boiled and spread on

a mat, and *muli* is powdered and sprinkled over it. After about twelve hours it is transferred to an earthen jar, the mouth of which is closed, and left to ferment for three or four days. Water is then added and allowed to stand for a few hours, and the beer is at last considered to be ready. The usual proportions are five seers of rice and three chattaks of *muli* to half a *kulsi* of water; and the liquor produced is said to be much stronger than most European beers. Liquor is often illicitly distilled from *laopani* or boiled rice, by the following simple method. An earthen pot with a hole in the bottom is placed on the top of the vessel containing the *laopani* or rice, and the whole is set on the fire. The mouth of the upper pot is closed by a cone-shaped vessel filled with cold water, and a saucer is placed at the bottom of the pot over the hole. The vapour rises into the upper of the two jars, condenses against the cold cone, with which the mouth is closed, and falls in the form of spirit on to the saucer beneath. Care must of course be taken to see that the various cracks are closed against the passage of the spirituous vapour, but this can easily be done with strips of cloth.

Income Tax. The receipts under the head of income tax in 1904 amounted to Rs. 28,879, about one-half of which was derived from the salaries paid to garden managers and their subordinates. Other sources of income yielded Rs. 10,730, which was paid by 182 assessees, the great majority of whom were engaged in commerce and trade. This class included 18 money-lenders, 29 contractors, 44 dealers in food-grains, and 11 dealers in piece-goods. Only 15 professional men were assessed to income tax,

14 of whom were pleaders. There has been a considerable expansion under this head of revenue in Cachar. The receipts in 1888 amounted to Rs. 25,800 and by 1899 had risen to Rs. 38,500. The decrease which occurred in 1904 was largely due to the effect of Act XI of 1903, which raised the minimum taxable income from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 per annum.

Stamps. The receipts under the head of judicial stamps in 1903-04 amounted to Rs. 66,738. Cachar stood second in the list of districts, but the revenue obtained was less than a sixth of that which was realised in Sylhet. Rs. 29,089 were derived from non-judicial stamps, a figure which was largely exceeded by Sylhet and very slightly by Lakhimpur.

Public Works. Public works are in charge of an Executive or Assistant Engineer who is usually assisted by two upper and three lower subordinates. The Public works Department are entrusted with the construction and maintenance of all the larger public buildings. The most important are the jail, the public offices, schools and post and telegraph offices at district and subdivisional headquarters, circuit-houses, dak bungalows, and inspection bungalows on provincial roads. Inspection bungalows on other roads are maintained by the Local Boards. The most important lines of communication which are directly under the Department are (1) the road from Badarpur through Silchar to Jirighat on the Manipur frontier; and (2) the road from Silchar across the Chatla *haor* through Somairkona to Hailakandi. A little to the north of Hailakandi it divides into two branches, one going to Badarpur the other to Salchapra railway station.

It has already been explained that Local Board works that require professional skill or engineering knowledge are usually made over to the Executive Engineer for execution. The principal difficulties with which the Department has to contend are the absence of an artizan class, and the scarcity and dearness of unskilled labour. It is to these two causes that the heavy cost of public works in Cachar is largely due.

General Administration. For general administrative purposes the district is divided into three subdivisions. Silchar is under the immediate charge of the Deputy Commissioner, who is allowed as his immediate assistants three subordinate magistrates and a sub-deputy collector. Hailakandi is entrusted to an assistant magistrate, who is almost invariably a European, and who is allowed a sub-deputy collector as his assistant. The North Cachar Hills are administered by a European Officer of Police who exercises judicial powers. The Deputy Commissioner is not only District Magistrate, but he is also District, though not Sessions, Judge. In addition to his purely magisterial and judicial functions, he is responsible for the harmonious and efficient working of the various departments of the administration which are described in the following pages.

Criminal and civil justice. Appeals lie to the Deputy Commissioner from orders passed by magistrates of the second or third class, and from the orders of first-class magistrates to the Sessions Judge of Sylhet who is also the Sessions Judge of Cachar. Appeals from the Judge lie to the High Court of Judicature at Calcutta. In 1902, there were nine stipendiary and two honorary

magistrates in the Cachar Plains. The former decided 775 and the latter only two original criminal cases. In the course of these proceedings 3,125 witnesses were examined. Altogether there were 987 cases under the Indian Penal Code returned as true, the immense majority of which were either offences against property or against the human body. There is not much serious crime and most of the offences were either theft or house trespass. The Deputy Commissioner is invested with the special powers mentioned in Sections 30 and 34 of the Criminal Procedure Code, and is authorised to impose sentences up to seven years' rigorous imprisonment.

The civil work of the district is not heavy. The Deputy Commissioner acts as the District Civil Judge, while one of the assistant magistrates in each subdivision in the plains discharges the functions of a munsif. Appeals from the decisions of the munsifs are heard by the subordinate judge of Sylhet and Cachar, who holds his court periodically at Silchar for this purpose. In 1902, the District Civil Judge* heard 14 original cases and 25 appeals, while 2,080 original suits were disposed of by the munsifs. Less than one-sixth of these suits were contested, and a large proportion of them were simple money-suits.

North Cachar.

Special rules are in force for the administration of justice in the North Cachar Hills. The jurisdiction of the High Court is barred except on its criminal side in the case of European British subjects, and the Deputy Commissioner is empowered to pass sentence of death, transportation

* The appointment of the subordinate judge was sanctioned in 1903.

and imprisonment for fourteen years. Sentences of death, transportation, and imprisonment for seven years or upward require, however, the confirmation of the Chief Commissioner. No appeal lies as a matter of right from any sentence of the Deputy Commissioner of less than three years' imprisonment.

Registration. The Deputy Commissioner is also the registrar of the district and there is a special sub-registrar at Silchar, and rural sub-registrars at Katigara and Hailakandi. The number of documents registered is considerable and in 1903 amounted to 7,899, a figure largely in excess of that returned from any district in the Assam Valley.

Volunteering. A volunteer corps was first enrolled in Cachar in 1883, with a strength of 80 members, but was subsequently amalgamated with the Sylhet volunteers to form the Surma Valley Light Horse. This admirable corps had a strength in 1904 of 334 men, 156 of whom were residing in Cachar.

Police. The civil police are in charge of a District or Assistant Superintendent of Police. The sanctioned strength consists of 1 inspector, 24 sub-inspectors, and 210 constables. Forty smooth-bore Martinis are allotted to Cachar, and a reserve of men is kept up at the district and subdivisional headquarters who are armed with these weapons and are employed on guard and escort duty. Up-country men, Nepalese, and members of the aboriginal tribes are usually deputed to this work, though attempts are made to put all the constables through an annual course of musketry. The foundation of the police system is the village chaukidar. He is required to report

all serious crime to the officer in charge of the police station within which his village is situated, to arrest persons committing such crimes in his presence, to collect vital statistics, to observe the movements of bad characters, and generally to inform his official superiors of anything likely to affect the peace and good administration of the district. In addition to their regular duties in, connection with the prevention and detection of crime, the police are required to check the returns of vital statistics, manage pounds, enquire into cases in which death has not been due to natural causes, furnish guards and escorts, and to serve all processes in warrant cases. The district as a whole is fairly free from serious crime but murders are not uncommon, and, during the 20 years ending with 1899, seven cases of murder or culpable homicide were on the average reported every year.

Dacoity.

In 1903, a dacoity of a very singular character was committed in the shop of a well-to-do trader on the Kalachara Tea Estate. All the arrangements for the crime were planned across the frontier in Afghanistan, and a gang of 27 men started for India with the deliberate intention of looting a shop in the Hailakandi valley, 2,000 miles away. Fortunately the trader was on friendly terms with another Pathan, who had been accustomed to make the shop his headquarters when he came on trading expeditions to Cachar, and this man gave information to the police. It was intended to arrest the dacoits in the very act, but they arrived earlier than was expected and succeeded in getting away with their booty. Twenty-four of the gang were, however, subsequently arrested, and were duly tried and convicted.

The chaukidar. Under native rule an establishment of village servants, called *dakuahs*, was maintained by the Raja of Cachar, and remunerated by assignments of land which were estimated to bring in about Rs. 5 per annum. When the district lapsed to the British in 1830, these grants of land were resumed, and a chaukidar was appointed to every 64 houses, each of which contributed one pice per mensem for his support. His sole duty was to report heinous offences at the police stations, and to submit from time to time reports on the state of affairs in his beat. He was not required to patrol at night, as fear of wild animals kept people at home after dark. As time went on, the pay of the chaukidar, which had never at any time been large, became more and more inadequate for his support, and he grew in consequence more and more indifferent to his duties. Matters were to some extent improved by the introduction of Regulation I of 1883, but this Regulation has not proved to be entirely suited to the conditions prevailing in Cachar. The chaukidar is left to make his own arrangement with the villagers for his pay, and he thus receives it neither punctually nor in full. Act VI (B.C.) of 1870 has been extended to the district, but has not yet been introduced, and the village police are still managed under Regulation I. Six hundred and sixty-one chaukidars were entertained in Cachar in 1903, at a total cost of Rs. 32,000.

Military police. For many years a battalion of military police was stationed in Cachar, and prior to the occupation of the Lushai Hills, a large portion of the battalion was detailed on outpost duty. In 1888, there were three posts in the North Cachar Hills, two in the plains at their

feet, and six along the eastern and southern frontier stretching from Jirighat to Jhalnachara at the south of the Hailakandi valley. The gradual pacification of the hill tribes has rendered it possible to withdraw these small detachments, and proposals have been submitted to amalgamate the force with the Lakhimpur military police battalion and to reduce the strength to 149 officers and men. The battalion saw a good deal of active service and took part in the Lushai Hills Expedition of 1871-72, the Garo Hills Expedition of 1872, the Naga Hills Expedition of 1879-80, the Chin-Lushai Expedition of 1889-90, the Manipur Expedition of 1891, and the Lushai Expedition of 1892. The service is not unpopular and recruits are fairly easily obtained, the great majority being Gurkhas, and the remainder members of the aboriginal tribes such as Garos, Rabhas, Meches and Kacharis. The number of resignations is, however, high, as men when they first join find it difficult to live upon their pay. The guards for the treasury and jail at Silchar are furnished by the military police. The men are armed with Martini-Henry rifles mark IV, bayonets, and kukris.

There is a jail at Silchar with accommodation for 58 convicts and magistrate's lock-ups at Haflang and Hailakandi. The prisoners at Silchar are chiefly employed on gardening, oil-pressing, and rice-husking. Those who are sentenced to more than one year's imprisonment are transferred to the large jail at Sylhet. **Jail.**

Education is a plant of comparatively recent growth in Cachar. In the year 1856-57, there was not a single school in the district. In 1860-61, there was one unaided **Education. Progress of education.**

19

school, which was attended by only 13 pupils.* Matters began slowly to improve, and in 1865-66 seven schools† were in existence, but little progress was made till the reforms initiated by Sir George Campbell had had time to take effect. The following statement shows the progress made since 1874-75:—

YEAR.	No. of secondary schools.	Pupils.	No. of primary schools.	Pupils.	Total No. of pupils.	No. of persons in district to each pupil.	Percentage under instruction to those of school-going age.	
							Males.	Females.
1874—75	7	373	108	2,119	2,492	94	...	...
1880—81	7	446	99	2,565	3,011	104	11·63	0·51
1890—91	3	413	190	4,708	5,121	75	15·88	1·34
1900—01	4	654	248	7,188	7,842	58	20 27	1·15

High and Middle schools

High schools are those institutions which are recognised by the Calcutta University as capable of affording suitable preparation for the Entrance Examination. The boys are taught from the earliest stage of their education up to the Entrance course as prescribed by the University of Calcutta, but many leave school without completing the course. Till recently, English was taught in all the classes. The smaller boys no longer learn that language, but the standard of instruction is higher than that prevailing in lower secondary (middle) schools. English is the medium of instruction in the first four classes of high schools; in the lower classes and in other

* Statistical Account of Assam, Vol. II, p. 456.

† Dacca Blue Book, p. 365.

schools the vernacular is employed. There is a Government high school at Silchar, and an aided high school at Hailakandi. The course of instruction at middle English and middle vernacular schools is the same; with the exception that English is taught in the former and not in the latter. The following are the subjects taught in the middle vernacular course: (1) Bengali comprising literature, grammar, and composition; (2) History of India; (3) Geography; (4) Arithmetic; (5) Elements of Euclid (Book I), mensuration of plane surfaces and surveying; and (6) simple lessons on botany and agriculture. Middle schools are situated at Silchar, Barkhala, Katigara, and Narsingpur.

Primary Education.

Primary education is again divided into upper and lower, but the proportion of boys in upper primary schools is less than six per cent. of the total number, and this class of school, like the middle vernacular, is slowly dying out. The course of study in lower primary schools includes Reading, Writing, Dictation, Simple Arithmetic, and the Geography of Assam. In upper primary schools the course is somewhat more advanced, and includes part of the first book of Euclid, Mensuration, and a little History. The standard of instruction given still leaves much to be desired, but efforts have been recently made to improve it, by raising the rates of pay given to the masters. Fixed pay is now awarded at average rates of Rs. 8 per mensem for certificated, and Rs. 5 per mensem for uncertificated teachers, supplemented by capitation grants at rates ranging from 3 annas to 6 annas for pupils in the three highest classes. Statistics for female education will be found in Table XXI.

As in other parts of India it has made comparatively little progress. The inspecting staff consists of two Deputy Inspectors and one Sub-Inspector. The head-quarters of the Inspector of the Surma Valley are located at Silchar.

Medical. The District is in the medical charge of the Civil Surgeon who is stationed at Silchar. It contains seven dispensaries, and the supervision of the work done at these institutions is one of the most important of his duties. He also acts as superintendent of the jail, controls and inspects the vaccination department, and is required to visit and report on all tea-gardens on which the death-rate for the previous year has exceeded 7 per cent.

The conditions under which the people pass their days are far from conducive to a long mean duration of life. Their houses are small, dark, and ill-ventilated, and the rooms in summer must be exceedingly close and oppressive. They are built upon low mud plinths, and are in consequence extremely damp, and the inmates, instead of sleeping on beds or bamboo platforms, which would cost them nothing to provide, often pass the night on a mat on the cold floor. The houses are buried in groves of fruit-trees and bamboos, which afford indeed a pleasant shade, but act as an effective barrier to the circulation of the air, and increase the humidity of the already over-humid atmosphere. Sanitary arrangements there are none, the rubbish is swept up into a corner and allowed to rot with masses of decaying vegetation; and the complete absence of latrines renders the neighbourhood of the village a most unsavoury place. The water-supply is generally bad, and is drawn either from shallow

holes, from rivers, or from tanks in which the villagers wash their clothes and persons. All of these are undoubtedly factors which contribute to produce a high mortality, and nearly every one of them could be eliminated, but the work of purification must be done by the villagers themselves.

Vital statistics.

Vital statistics are reported verbally by the village chaukidars to the police, but the returns are far from accurate. The average recorded birth and death-rates between 1891 and 1901, worked out on the mean population of the decade, were births 30 and deaths 31 per mille. It is obvious that these figures must be wrong, but there are not sufficient data available to admit of the framing of a normal birth and death-rate for the district.

Causes of mortality.

Fever and bowel complaints are the forms which death most often takes in the Cachar district, at any rate according to official returns. These returns are, however, so inaccurate, and so little reliance can be placed on the diagnosis of the reporting agency that the figures hardly repay examination. Epidemics of cholera from time to time produce a high mortality, for though it is apparently endemic in the district, it occasionally breaks out with unusual severity. The abstract in the margin shows the recorded death-rate from this cause in the years when cholera was most prevalent. The people are careless about vaccination, and the proportion so protected in the quinquennium ending with 1902-03 was not half of the proportion in the Province as a whole. The mortality from small-pox is proportionately high. The native methods of midwifery leave much to

Cholera death-rate per mille:—

1889	...	6·9
1891	...	6·1
1893	...	6·9
1897	...	6·3

be desired, and it is feared that the mortality in child-birth is extremely high.

Increase in facilities for obtaining medical aid.

Though there can be little doubt that many lives are annually lost which could be saved by proper treatment, it is satisfactory to know that of recent years there has been a great increase in the facilities for obtaining medical aid, and, in the extent to which the people avail themselves of the advantages now offered to them. From the statement in the margin it appears that for every patient treated in 1881 there were 4 in 1901, while the number of operations performed rose from 870 to 1,274 :—

	No. Dispensaries.	No. Patients treated.
1881	2	11,632
1891	4	31,838
1901	6	43,939

The principal dispensaries are those situated at Silchar and Hailakandi. The first dispensary was opened in the district, at Silchar, in 1864. The diseases for which treatment is most commonly applied are worms, cutaneous disorders, malarial fevers, diseases of the eye, dysentery and diarrhœa, and rheumatic affections. Further information with regard to the dispensaries in the district will be found in Table XXIV.

Survey.

A professional revenue survey of the district was made at the time when Cachar was still a district of Bengal and the maps were published in 1870. They are on the scale of one inch to the mile, and show the sites of villages and the physical features of the country. A smaller map on the scale of four miles to the inch was published in 1881, corrected in 1890, and is at present (1905) under revision. An area of 1,084 square miles which included the more densely populated portions of the district was cadastrally surveyed in the seasons of 1893-94 to 1895-96. The maps are on the

scale of sixteen inches to the mile, and, in addition to the topographical features, show the boundaries of each field. The results obtained from the cadastral survey have been utilised in the revision of the one-inch map of the district.

APPENDIX.

LIST OF TABLES.

LIST OF TEA GARDENS.

STATEMENT A.

List of Tea Gardens.

Serial No.	Name of garden.	Name of owner or company to which it belongs.	Thana in which situated.	Approximate distance by road from subdivisional headquarters.	Area in acres on December 31st, 1903.	Area in acres under tea (both mature and immature) on December 31st, 1903.	Labour force on December 31st, 1903.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Miles.			
		SILCHAR SUBDIVISION.					
1	Abongchara ...	Messrs. Davidson, Doake, Charles & Ferguson.	Barkhala ...	12	996	Included in Subong.	259
2	Ailatal	North-Western Cachar Tea Co.	Katigara ...	26	Included in Karkuri.	211	201
3	Ainachara	Mr. Stephen George Sale and others.	Silchar ...	19	662	Included in Matichara.	
4	Alipur	Scotpur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	10	1,039	Included in Pollarband.	
5	Allenpur	Anglo-American Direct Tea Trading Co., Ld.	Silchar ...	17	2,534	Included in Barjalinga.	
6	Alyne	Messrs. A. & R. Spicer	Lakhipur ...	20	1,742	530	532
7	Arkatipur	Arkatipur Tea Co.	Silchar ...	6	1,185	(a) 800	(a) 469
8	Badlichara	Indragram Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	14	Included in Kumbhirgram.		292

9	Bagh 'o' Bahar ...	Irangmara Tea Co.	Silchar ...	20	206	Included in Irangmara.	271
10	Baglaghat	Chinkuri Tea Co.	Do. ...	6	Included in Chinkuri.		37
11	Bahadurpur ...	Jirighat Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	27	Included in Jirighat.	78	72
12	Baikunthapur ...	Dr. R. B. Davidson and others	Katigara ...	19	1,351	Included in Kalain.	
13	Balachara	Chera Tea Co.	Barkhala ...	13	1,818	528	713
14	Baladhan	Tarapur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	24	1,939	495	410
15	Baradudpatli ...	Dudpatli Tea Co.	Silchar ...	3	12,091	Included in Hatichara.	
16	Barjalinga	Anglo-American Direct Tea Trading Co., Ld.	Do. ...	17	1,968	(b) 716	(b) 815
17	Barkhala	Dr. A. J. M. Maclaughlin ...	Barkhala ...	11	815	280	169
18	Barsangon	East India Tea Co.	Silchar ...	12	681	350	308
19	Barthol	Tarapur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	21	(c) 1,493	(d) 868	(d) 800
20	Bhorakhai	Bhorakhai Tea Co.	Silchar ...	8	(e) 2,868	(e) 1,000	(e) 714
21	Bikrampur	Messrs. Smeal & Co. ...	Katigara ...	17	1,634	(f) 677	(f) 492
22	Binnakandi	Eastern Cachar Tea Co. ...	Lakhipur ...	17	(g) 3,156	199	442
23	Boaljur	Babu B. C. Gupta	Silchar ...	3	79	40	9
24	Bowalia	Eastern Cachar Tea Co. ...	Lakhipur ...	20	1,307	117	178

(a) Includes figures for Chappannahal.
(d) " " " Jaipur.
(b) Includes figures for Allenpur.
(e) " " " Gungur.
(g) " " " Eliachara.
(c) Includes figures for Dewan.
(f) " " " Kalibari.

STATEMENT A.

List of Tea Gardens—continued.

Serial No.	Name of garden.	Name of owner or company to which it belongs.	Thana in which situated.	Approximate distance by road from subdivisional head-quarters.	Area in acres on December 31st, 1903.	Area in acres under tea (both mature and immature) on December 31st, 1903.	Labour force on December 31st, 1903.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Miles.			
25	Bundu	Tarapur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	21	2,227	509	456
26	Chalitakandi ...	Dudpatli Tea Co.	Silchar ...	3	120	Included in Hatichara.	
27	Chandighat ...	Rangamati Tea Co.	Do. ...	12	2,396	530	354
28	Chappannahal ...	Arkatipur Tea Co.	Do. ...	6	519	Included in Arkatipur.	
29	Chengjur	Messrs. Barlow & Co.	Lakhipur ...	18	890	(h) 499	(h) 554
30	Chinkuri	Chinkuri Tea Co.	Silchar ...	6	(i) 1,300	(i') 460	225
31	Chota Dudpatli ...	Dudpatli Tea Co.	Do. ...	2	768	495	828
32	Chungdowa	Chungdowa Tea Co.	Do. ...	14	1,959	481	291
33	Craigpark	Craigpark Tea Co.	Katigara ...	25	1,240	633	417

PUNJAB, CIVIL SECRETARIAT
RY LAHORE

34	Dalchara	Dalchara Tea Co.	Barkhala ...	13	2,069	556	522
35	Dalu	Dalu Tea Co.	Silchar ...	10	3,483	1,300	1,639
36	Dalugram	Messrs. Grindlay & Co. ...	Do. ...	12	2,004	546	531
37	Daramkhal	Cachar Duars Tea Co., Ld. ...	Do. ...	11	Included in Silkuri.	578	674
38	Dargarkona... ...	Ditto ditto ...	Do. ...	12	Do.	689 (j)	677 (j)
39	Delkhosh	Mr. J. H. M. Stevenson ...	Lakhipur ...	17	1,659	356	470
40	Derby	Derby Tea Co.	Silchar ...	14	1,830	1,300	1,069
41	Dewan	Tarapur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	18	Included in Barthol.	544	969
42	Dhayarband ...	British India Tea Co.	Silchar ...	18	1,081	487	633
43	Didarkhosh	Messrs. Barlow & Co.	Lakhipur ...	18	1,342	Included in Chengjur.	
44	Digabar	North-Western Cachar Tea Co.	Katigara ...	21	Included in Karkuri.	363	372
45	Doyapur	Mr. R. S. Upton and others ...	Silchar ...	9	2,387	362	376
46	Elgin	Chinkuri Tea Co.	Do. ...	6	488	Included in Chinkuri.	220
47	Eliachara	Eastern Cachar Tea Co. ...	Lakhipur ...	18	Included in Binnakandi.	248	211
48	Goabari	Messrs. A. & R. Spicer	Silchar ...	15	1,043	Included in Pathimara.	
49	Gumra	Western Cachar Tea Co. ...	Katigara ...	25	3,476	307	307
50	Gungur	Bhorakhai Tea Co.	Silchar ...	7	Included in Bhorakhai.		

(h) Includes figure for Didarkhosh.
(i′) " " " Baglaghat and Elgin.
(i) Includes figure for Baglaghat.
(j) " " " Monkhosh.

STATEMENT A.

List of Tea Gardens—continued.

Serial No	Name of garden.	Name of owner or company to which it belongs.	Thana in which situated.	Approximate distance by road from subdivisional head-quarters.	Area in acres on December 31st, 1903.	Area in acres under tea (both mature and immature) on 31st, December 1903.	Labour force on December 31st, 1903.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Miles.			
51	Hatichara	Dudpatli Tea Co.	Silchar ...	10	5,008	(k) 1,037	(k) 1,406
52	Hatikuri	Eastern Cachar Tea Co. ...	Lakhipur ...	18	475	235	285
53	Helara	Mr. T. G. Stoker and others ...	Katigara ...	20	Included in Badurpur, (in Hailakandi subdivision.)		190
54	Heranchara	Chera Tea Co.	Barkhala ...	11	696	450	460
55	Indraghar	East India Tea Co.	Silchar ...	6	605	126	65
56	Indragram	Indragram Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	17	1,292	Included in Kumbhirgram.	317
57	Irangmara	Irangmara Tea Co.	Silchar ...	15	827	(l) 560	359
58	Jaipur	Tarapur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	22	2,099	Included in Barthol.	
59	Jalalpur	Western Cachar Tea Co. ...	Katigara ...	27	1,788	806	679

60	Jatinga Valley ...	Jatinga Valley Tea Co. ...	Barkhala ...	15	990	518	647
61	Jirighat	Jirighat Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	24	(m) 1,036	218	334
62	Kalain	Dr. R. B. Davidson and others	Katigara ...	20	1,808	(n) 1,560	(n) 1,551
63	Kalainchara ...	Lubha Tea Co.	Do. ...	26	1,172	589	428
64	Kalibari	Messrs. Smeal & Co.	Do. ...	16	1,010	Included in Bikrampur.	
65	Kalinagar	Kalinagar Khoril Tea Co. ...	Silchar ...	7	527	Included in Khoril.	
66	Karkuri	North-Western Cachar Tea Co.	Katigara ...	21	(o) 1,980	274	491
67	Kasipur	Kasipur Tea Co.	Silchar ...	5½	1,464	661	933
68	Katal	Imperial Tea Co.	Do. ...	8	1,757	(p) 1,198	(p) 1,008
69	Khoril	Kalinagar Khoril Tea Co. ...	Do. ...	8	1,033	(q) 485	(q) 729
70	Konapara	Dr. R. B. Davidson and others	Katigara ...	21	699	Included in Kalain.	
71	Kumbhir	Jatinga Valley Tea Co. ...	Silchar ...	15	2,404	839	1,001
72	Kumbhirgram ...	Indragram Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	15	(r) 1,504	(s) 1,270	565
73	Laboc	Tarapur Tea Co.	Do. ...	16	1,877	772	917
74	Lakhipur	Telka Tea Co., Ld.	Do. ...	14	Included in Naraindhar.		251

(k) Includes figures for Baradudpatli and Chalitakandi.
(m) " " " Bahadurpur.
(o) " " " Ailatal and Digabar.
(q) " " " Kalinagar.

(l) Includes figures for Bagh 'o' Bahar.
(n) " " " Baikunthapur, Konapara and Mezenta.
(p) " " " Merua.
(r) " " " Badlichara.

(s) Includes figures for Badlichara and Indragram.

STATEMENT A.

List of Tea Gardens—continued.

Serial No.	Name of garden.	Name of owner or company to which it belongs.	Thana in which situated.	Approximate distance by road from subdivisional head-quarters.	Area in acres on December 31st, 1903.	Area in acres under tea (both mature and immature) on December 31st, 1903.	Labour force on December 31st, 1903.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Miles.			
75	Lallang	Tarapur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	18	1,604	675	571
76	Larsingh	Jatinga Valley Tea Co. ...	Silchar ...	9	1,876	677	683
77	Lydiachara	Tarapur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	20	932	600	548
78	Madura	Babu Dina Nath Datta ...	Silchar ...	7	377	195	137
79	Majargram	Majargram Tea Co.	Do. ...	11	1,363	529	674
80	Mamdha	Eastern Cachar Tea Co. ...	Lakhipur ...	17	1,088	305 (t)	294 (t)
81	Maniarkhal	The East India Association, Ld.	Sonai ...	25	1,649	588	594
82	Masimpur	Kalinagar Khoril Tea Co. ...	Silchar ...	5	512	400 (u)	201 (u)
83	Matichara	Mr. Stephen George Sale and others.	Do. ...	20	1,797	700	736
84	Merna	Imperial Tea Co.	Do. ...	7	2,637	Included in Katal.	

85	Mezenta	Dr. R. B. Davidson and others	Katigara ...	20	636	Included in Kalain.	
86	Monkhosh	Mr. J. H. M. Stevenson ...	Lakhipur ...	16	903	Included in Delkhosh.	
87	Nagadung	Messrs. A. & R. Spicer	Silchar ...	14	989	Included in Pathimara.	
88	Narainchara ...	Chera Tea Co.	Barkhala ...	11	797	300	311
89	Naraindhar	Telka Tea Co., Ld.	Lakhipur ...	22	(v) 1,119	(w) 680	186
90	Narainpur	Scotpur Tea Co.	Do. ...	14	1,505	400	393
91	Natwanpur	Lubha Tea Co., Ld.	Katigara ...	30	550	266	137
92	Noarband	East India Tea Co.	Silchar ...	20	1,680	298	355
93	Palai	Cachar Duars Tea Co. Ld. ...	Do. ...	15	1,937	603	616
94	Panichara	Chera Tea Co.	Barkhala ...	13	924	190	219
95	Pathichara	Messrs. A. & R. Spicer	Silchar ...	17	1,744	883	1,015
96	Pathimara	Ditto	Do. ...	15	1,682	(x) 1,011	(x) 972
97	Pollarband	Scotpur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	11	851	(y) 613	(y) 790
98	Rampur	Messrs. Cresswell & Driver ...	Silchar ...	9	1,143	700	988
99	Ratanpur	Messrs. R. White & W. Pringle	Do. ...	20	508	449	320
100	Rosekandi	India Tea Co. of Cachar, Ld. ...	Do. ...	18	3,371	(z) 1,147	(z) 1,425

(t) Includes figures for St. Catherine.
(v) " " " Lakhipur.
(x) " " " Goabari, Nagadung, Shiberband, and Thaligram.

(u) Includes figures for Ainachara.
(w) " " " Lakhipur and Telka.
(y) " " " Alipur.
(z) " " " Shahapur.

STATEMENT A.

List of Tea Gardens—continued.

Serial No.	Name of garden.	Name of owner or company to which it belongs.	Thana in which situated.	Approximate distance by road from subdivisional head-quarters.	Area in acres on December 31st, 1903.	Area in acres under tea (both mature and immature) on December 31st, 1903.	Labour force on December 31st, 1903.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Miles.			
101	Rukni	Messrs. Butler & Macdonald ...	Sonai ...	20	Not known.		371
102	Rupairbali	Babu B. C. Gupta	Lakhipur ...	12	731	165	141
103	St. Catherine ...	The East India Association, Ld.	Sonai ...	20	904	Included in Maniarkhal.	
104	Salchapra	Diptamala Dhar	Silchar ...	10	760	Not known.	
105	Scotpur	Scotpur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	13	1,480	474	399
106	Shahapur	India Tea Co. of Cachar Ld. ...	Silchar ...	21	1,052	Included in Rosekandi.	
107	Shiberband ...	Messrs. A. & R. Spicer	Do. ...	12	140	Included in Pathimara.	
108	Silkuri	Cachar Duars Tea Co., Ld. ...	Do. ...	9	(a′) 9,417	456	634
109	Srikona	Babu Golak Chandra Das and others.	Do. ...	7	857	150	66
110	Subong	Dr. Davidson and others ...	Barkhala ...	13	1,924	(b′) 740	749

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111	Tarapur	Tarapur Tea Co.	Lakhipur ...	13	1,125	849	835
112	Telka	Telka Tea Co., Ld.	Do. ...	17	1,335	Included in Naraindhar.	486
113	Thailu	Tarapur Tea Co.	Do. ...	19	1,344	910	823
114	Thaligram	Messrs. A. & R. Spicer	Silchar ...	13	53	Included in Pathimara.	
115	Tikalpur	Amalgamated Tea Co.	Do. ...	15	1,698	600	306
116	Urunarband ...	British India Tea Co.	Do. ...	10	2,581	695	783
117*	West Jalinga ...	Jalinga Tea Co.	Do. ...	16	1,805	564	506

HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISION.

1	Ainakhal	Bengal United Tea Co., Ld. ...	Hailakandi ...	7	(a) 6,553	(a) 1,822	(a') 1,752
2	Apin	Phœnix Tea Co., Ld.	Katlichara ...	16	2,305	250	356
3	Badarpur	Mr. T. G. Stoker and others ...	Hailakandi ...	16	(b) 1,042	(b') 615	206
4	Bandukmara ...	Phœnix Tea Co., Ld.	Do. ...	8	2,817	560	600
5	Barunchara ...	Mr. T. M. Gibbons & Miss Gibbons.	Katlichara ...	28	(c) 11,198	(c) 439	(c) 597
6	Barnibrais	Central Cachar Tea Co., Ld. ...	Hailakandi ...	10	2,625	600	503
7	Chandipur	Chandipur Tea Co., Ld. ...	Do. ...	8	8,645	758	893

(a') Includes figures for Daramkhal and Dargarkona. (b') Includes figures for Abongchara.

* The Tea Report for 1903 shows 147 gardens. The gardens which have not been separately surveyed are included in one or the other of the 117 gardens shown in this list.

(a) Includes figures for Lakhinagar. (b) Includes figures for Helara in Silchar subdivision.

(c) Includes figures for Jhalnachara, Kukichara and Nagachara.

STATEMENT A.

List of Tea Gardens—concluded.

Serial No.	Name of garden.	Name of owner or company to which it belongs.	Thana in which situated.	Approximate distance by road from subdivisional head-quarters.	Area in acres on December 31st, 1903.	Area in acres under tea (both mature and immature) on December 31st, 1903.	Labour force on December 31st, 1903.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
				Miles.			
8	Dhalai	Mr. T. M. Gibbons & Miss Gibbons.	Katlichara ...	26	1,938	330	318
9	Jhalnachara... ...	Mr. T. M. Gibbons	Do. ...	30	Included in Barunchara.		
10	Jhapirband Goglachara.	South Cachar Tea Co., Ld. & Mr. H. E. Crawford.	Hailakandi ...	9	2,122	459	597
11	Kalachara	Kalachara Tea Co., Ld. ...	Do. ...	8	2,719	450	505
12	Kanchanpur ...	Kanchanpur Tea Co., Ld. ...	Do. ...	6	Not known.		523
13	Katlichara	Katlichara Tea Co., Ld. ...	Katlichara ...	18	2,810	400	470
14	Kaya	Messrs. Harby, Macneill & Co., & D. McWha.	Hailakandi ...	9	2,323	684	761
15	Kuchila	Kuchila Tea Co., Ld.	Do. ...	6	738	80	69
16	Kukichara	Mr. T. M. Gibbons	Katlichara ...	25	Included in Barunchara.		

17	Lakhinagar	Bengal United Tea Co., Ld. ...	Hailakandi ...	7	Included in Ainakhal.		
18	Lalachara	Second Mutual Tea Co., Ld. ...	Katlichara ...	15	3,250	832	1,040
19	Lalamukh or Hasiura	New Mutual Tea Co., Ld. ...	Hailakandi ...	12	3,883	883	879
20	Manachara	Bengal United Tea Co., Ld. ...	Do. ...	5½	1,395	235	302
21	Manipur	Messrs. T. B. Atkins, J. Alwin & W. Stiefelhagen.	Katlichara ...	23	1,240	310	249
22	Mohanpur	Central Cachar Tea Co., Ld. ...	Hailakandi ...	9	2,770	350	305
23	Nagachara	Mr. T. M. Gibbons	Katlichara ...	24	Included in Barunchara.		
24	Rupachara	Messrs. D. H. McFarlane & Co., Ld.	Do. ...	17	849	500	636
25	Saraspur	Central Cachar Tea Co., Ld. ...	Hailakandi ...	2	2,808	441	528
26*	Vernerpur	Cachar Native Joint Stock Co., Ld.	Katlichara ...	16	3,487	675	761

* The Tea Report for 1903 shows 33 gardens. The difference is due to the revision of the tea garden register and gardens which have no separate coolie lines having been included in the main garden.

STATEMENT B.

List of Post Offices.

Name of Post or Telegraph Office.	Thana or Outpost in which situated.
Badarpur*	Karimganj Thana (in Sylhet)
Banskandi*	Silchar Thana
Barkhala*	Barkhala Outpost
Dalu*	Ditto
Dalugram	Silchar Thana
Damchara	Barkhala Outpost
Derby*	Silchar Thana
Dewan*	Lakhipur Thana
Dhayarband*	Silchar Thana
Haflang*	Naga mauza
Hailakandi*	Hailakandi Thana
Hatikuri	Lakhipur Thana
Jirighat	Ditto
Kalachara	Hailakandi Thana
Kalain*	Katigara Thana
Kalibari bazar	Hailakandi Thana
Katlichara*	Katlichara Outpost
Kukichara*	Ditto
Kumbhir*	Silchar Thana
Lakhipur*	Lakhipur Thana
Lala*	Hailakandi Thana
Maibang	Nakti mauza
Manachara*	Hailakandi Thana
Palanghat	Sonai Outpost
Rosekandi*	Silchar Thana
Salchapra	Ditto
Silchar	Ditto
Silkuri*	Ditto
Sonaimukh	Sonai Outpost
Udharband*	Silchar Thana

* The names marked with asterisks are combined post and telegraph offices. There is also a departmental telegraph office at Silchar.

STATEMENT C.

List of villages having three or more permanent shops.

Name of tahsil.	Village.	No. of permanent shops.
NORTH CACHAR ...	Haflang	22
KATIGARA	Baraitali	5
	Bhairabpur	4
	Buribail	5
	Burunga	3
	Ganirgram	3
	Govindapur	10
	Khelma	4
	Lakhipur	4
	Mahadebpur	5
	Natwanpur	4
	Shib Narayanpur	4
SILCHAR	Badarpur	5
	Banskandi bazar	13
	Barkhala bazar	43
	Bara Rampur bazar	10
	Claverhouse	3
	Damchara bazar	12
	Dayapur	7
	Dudpatli	7
	Harinchara	3
	Kumarpara	13
	Loharband	3
	Masimpur	4
	Nij Banskandi	9
	Rangpur	6
	Ranir bazar	30
	Salchapra bazar	4
	Silchar town	472
	Sonabarighat bazar	3
	Sonaimukh bazar	52
	Tarapur	6
	Tekalpur bazar	5
	Udharband bazar	63
	Ujangram	5
	Ujannagar	3
HAILAKANDI	Hailakandi	120

STATEMENT D.

List of Markets.

Tahsil.	Place at which market is held.	Days of week when held.
HAFLANG ...	Haflang	Friday
	Harangajao	Tuesday
	Mahur	Friday
KATIGARA ...	Behara	Monday and Friday
	Bhadari	Saturday and Wednesday
	Digabar	Tuesday
	Gumra	Sunday
	Haritikar	Saturday and Wednesday
	Jalalpur	Sunday and Thursday
	Kalain	Saturday and Wednesday
	Kalainchara	Wednesday
	Kalibari	Saturday and Wednesday
	Karkuri	Tuesday.
	Katigara	Wednesday and Sunday
	Kauakhai	Friday
	Natwanpur	Wednesday
	Pechachara	Sunday and Thursday
	Siyaltek	Tuesday and Friday
	Trikpakai	Tuesday
SILCHAR ...	Alni	Wednesday
	Banskandi	Monday and Friday
	Bara Jalinga	Sunday
	Bara Mamda	Monday
	Barkhala	Sunday and Thursday
	Binnakandi	Sunday
	Changduar	Thursday
	Derby	Sunday
	Dhayarband	Thursday
	Dhalai bazar	Monday and Thursday
	Didarkhosh	Friday
	Jainagar	Wednesday and Saturday
	Jaipur or Rajarbazar	Saturday and Tuesday
	Jirighat	Monday
	Kabarikona	Sunday
	Katal	Do.
	Lakhipur	Sunday and Thursday
	Maniarkhal	Thursday
	Palaipunji	Sunday
	Panibhara	Wednesday
	Rani bazar	Monday and Thursday
	Rukni garden	Sunday

STATEMENT D.

List of Markets—concluded.

Tahsil.	Place at which market is held.	Days of week when held.
SILCHAR—*concld.*	Sahapur	Sunday
	Saint Catherine	Monday
	Salchapra	Wednesday and Saturday
	Silchar town—	
	Khas bazar	Daily
	Ukil bazar	Sunday
	Sildubi	Wednesday
	Silkuri	Sunday
	Singarband	Saturday and Tuesday
	Sonai	Do. do.
	South Mohanpur	Monday
	Srikona II	Do.
	Tariniganj or Paylapul	Monday and Friday
	Telka	Tuesday
	Udharband	Monday and Friday
HAILAKANDI ...	Ainakhal	Sunday.
	Baburbazar (Kalinagar)	Saturday and Wednesday
	Bandukmara garden	Sunday
	Chandipur garden	Do.
	Chupalghat (Bhatirkupa)... ...	Monday and Thursday
	Dhalai bazar	Wednesday
	" garden	Friday
	Hailakandi town	Saturday and Wednesday
	Hasiura garden	Sunday and Thursday
	Janaki bazar (North Kanchanpur)	Saturday and Wednesday
	Joykrishnapur	Monday and Friday
	Kalachara (Sudarsanpur) ...	Sunday and Thursday
	Kalibari bazar (Algapur) ...	Monday and Thursday
	Kaya garden	Sunday
	Kuchila garden	Tuesday and Friday
	Kukichara garden	Friday
	Lala bazar	Saturday and Tuesday
	Lalachara garden	Sunday and Thursday
	Lotakandi "	Thursday
	Manachara bazar	Do.
	Matijuri (Bansdahar)	Tuesday and Friday
	Mohanpur bazar	Saturday
	" garden	Sunday
	Pakhichara garden	Do.
	Ralakandi (Itarkandi)	Friday
	Robertabad grant	Sunday
	Rupachara garden	Do.
	Saraspur garden	Friday
	Vernerpur garden	Saturday

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TABLE I.

Average maximum and minimum temperatures registered at Silchar.

	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.	Year.
Maximum temperature	77°·8	80°·7	86°·0	88°·5	88°·7	89°·4	90°·2	89°·5	89°·8	88°·7	84°·8	79°·7	86°·1
Minimum "	52°·3	55°·6	63°·2	69°·2	72°·5	76°·2	77°·2	76°·8	76°·4	72°·3	63°·6	55°·0	67°·5

TABLE II.

Rainfall.

[The number of years for which the average has been calculated is shewn in bracket below the name of each station.]

Months.	Average rainfall in inches.			
	Haflang (4 years).	Bikrampur (9 years).	Silchar (43 years).	Hailakandi (29 years).
January	0·28	0·28	0·64	0·70
February	1·40	2·34	2·32	1·75
March	5·69	9·95	7·93	8·26
April	9·23	19·25	13·56	12·96
May	7·60	22·83	15·72	15·79
June	15·42	27·35	20·39	19·69
July	11·50	27·81	19·98	15·61
August	10·17	24·82	18·69	16·49
September	12·21	20·95	13·95	12·12
October	3·42	9·21	6·40	5·90
November	0·55	1·69	1·31	1·10
December	0·01	0·27	0·54	0·60
TOTAL OF YEAR ...	77·48	16·675	121·43	110·97

TABLE III.

Distribution of population by thanas.

Thana.	Population in 1901.	Population in 1891.	Difference.	Area in square miles.	Population per square mile.	Number of persons censused on tea gardens.
Silchar ...	162,094	1,40,461	+21,633	706·09	229	63,947
Lakhipur* ...	83,821	73,041	+10,780	266·91	314	27,408
Katigara ...	55,969	54,171	+1,798	674·76	82	10,365
Hailakandi ...	112,897	99,869	+13,028	414·00	272	27,343
North Cachar	40,812	18,941	+21,871	1,706·00	24	20,324†
TOTAL DISTRICT	455,593	386,483	+69,110	‡ 3,769	121	

* Udharband pargana, which in 1891 contained 7,124 persons, has since been transferred to the *Sadr* Thana. The figures for 1891 for these two Thanas have been corrected accordingly.

† Railway population.

‡ The area of the district was furnished by the Survey Department and does not tally with the sum total of the areas of thanas, as the latter figures were obtained from the District Officer. The boundaries of the district were changed in 1904, and the present area is 3,565 square miles.

Table IV.

General statistics of population by subdivision.

	Silchar Subdivision.		Hailakandi Subdivision.		North Cachar Subdivision.		Total.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Population—									
1901	157,984	143,900	58,822	54,075	27,355	13,457	455,593	244,161	211,432
1891	142,472	125,201	51,901	47,968	9,306	9,635	386,483	203,679	182,804
1881	211,821		81,917		20,120		313,858	166,936	146,922
1872	75,767	63,589	34,606	31,065	15,000*	15,000*	235,027	125,373	109,654
Variation—									
1891—1901 ...	+15,512	+18,699	+6,921	+6,107	+18,049	+3,822	+69,110	+40,482	+28,628
1881—1891 ...	+55,852		+17,952		−1,179		+72,625	+36,743	+35,882
1872—1881 ...	+72,465		+16,246		−9,880		+78,831	+41,563	+37,268

* Estimated figures.

TABLE IV.

General statistics of population by subdivision—concluded.

	Silchar Subdivision.		Hailakandi Subdivision.		North Cachar Subdivision.		Total.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1901.									
Religion—									
Total Hindus ...	111,813	102,366	33,556	31,229	16,297	7,611	302,872	161,666	141,206
Shahaj Bhajanias ...	529	384	820	728	3	...	2,464	1,352	1,112
Other Vaishnavas ...	30,983	27,762	11,168	10,030	907	148	80,998	43,058	37,940
Saktists	34,990	31,291	9,940	9,200	6,842	4,898	97,161	51,772	45,389
Sivaites	8,568	7,207	1,195	948	195	29	18,142	9,958	8,184
Muhammadans ...	42,150	37,128	24,905	22,515	5,544	260	132,502	72,599	59,903
Animistic	3,474	3,981	313	311	5,278	5,561	18,918	9,065	9,853
Total Christians ...	494	407	40	16	59	24	1,040	593	447
Anglican Communion.	213	123	23	11	30	8	408	266	142
Minor Denominations	200	233	6	2	9	11	461	215	246
Other religions ...	53	18	8	4	177	1	261	238	23

Civil condition—									
Unmarried	82,894	55,179	31,547	20,025	11,281	5,793	206,719	125,722	80,997
Married	67,915	64,401	24,859	24,690	14,864	5,676	202,405	107,638	94,767
Widowed	7,175	24,320	2,416	9,360	1,210	1,988	46,469	10,801	35,668
Literacy—									
Literate in Bengali	12,409	540	4,805	143	768	36	18,701	17,982	719
" " English	1,342	80	299	14	341	18	2,094	1,982	112
Illiterate	143,396	143,278	53,630	53,915	25,279	13,394	432,892	222,305	210,587
Languages spoken—									
Bengali	89,030	79,192	45,438	41,411	3,866	208	259,145	138,334	120,811
Dimasa	3,742	3,678	164	161	5,279	4,437	17,461	9,185	8,276
Manipuri	19,594	18,947	3,196	3,025	197	16	44,975	22,987	21,988
Eastern Hindi and Hindostani.	36,808	33,865	9,367	8,782	6,417	2,450	97,689	52,592	45,097

TABLE V.

Birth place, race, caste and occupation by subdivision.

	SILCHAR SUBDIVISION.		HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISION.		NORTH CACHAR SUBDIVISION.		TOTAL.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Birth place.									
Born in district ...	102,448	100,250	43,295	420,41	10,586	10,223	308,843	156,329	152,514
„ Other parts of Province.	13,579	5,473	4,586	1,857	3,140	353	28,988	21,305	7,683
„ Chota Nagpur	10,983	11,225	1,803	2,210	853	413	27,487	13,639	13,848
„ Other parts of Bengal.	16,042	13,908	3,684	3,841	2,358	543	40,376	22,084	18,292
„ United Provinces.	7,418	5,864	4,483	2,600	3,681	1,070	25,116	15,582	9,534
„ Central Provinces.	5,074	5,383	675	1,175	622	395	13,324	6,371	6,953
„ Nepal.	357	110	16	5	1,367	180	1,985	1,740	245
„ Elsewhere.	2,083	1,687	280	346	4,748	330	9,474	7,111	2,363

Race and Caste.									
Bauri	5,042	5,427	1,430	1,441	106	43	13,489	6,578	6,911
Bhuiya	4,324	4,236	598	533	152	53	9,896	5,074	4,822
Brahman	1,771	1,072	436	311	594	95	4,279	2,801	1,478
Chamar	3,698	3,608	1,578	1,840	793	401	11,918	6,069	5,849
Dom Patni	14,475	13,941	6,185	6,175	241	22	41,039	20,901	20,138
Eurasian	16	19	...	...	4	1	40	20	20
European (*a*)	169	50	35	14	39	10	317	243	74
Goala	2,503	2,206	621	558	406	96	6,390	3,530	2,860
Jugi	3,720	3,391	2,035	1,902	105	10	11,163	5,860	5,303
Kachari	2,083	2,019	50	...	4,414	4,294	12,860	6,547	6,313
Kayastha	3,285	1,706	448	267	415	38	6,159	4,148	2,011
Kshattriya	2,133	2,175	3,375	2,935	196	10	10,824	5,704	5,120
Kuki	1,715	1,712	175	177	2,857	2,629	9,265	4,747	4,518
Mali	1,258	948	1,011	938	142	9	4,306	2,411	1,895
Manipuri	14,657	13,964	4	...	28	5	28,658	14,689	13,969
Munda	3,676	3,433	174	207	221	72	7,783	4,071	3,712
Musahar	2,633	2,905	763	730	131	55	7,217	3,527	3,690

(*a*) Includes allied races.

TABLE V.

Birth place, race, caste and occupation by subdivision—concluded.

	Silchar Subdivision.		Hailakandi Subdivision.		North Cachar Subdivision.		Total.		
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Persons.	Males.	Females.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Naga	1,031	1,433	...	...	1,921	2,220	6,605	2,952	3,653
Namasudra	4,127	3,491	2,978	2,863	70	4	13,533	7,175	6,358
Santal	4,307	4,167	713	775	105	17	10,084	5,125	4,959
Occupation.									
Workers	141,618 Males.*		66,950 Females*		22,639	6,736	237,943	164,257	73,686
Dependents	206,213 Both Sexes.*				11,437, Both Sexes.		217,650	...	...
Total supported—									
Landholders ...	58,301	51,424	26,196	24,268	...	...	1,60,189	84,497	75,692
Tenants	30,173	23,275	14,727	12,104	...	...	80,279	44,900	35,379
Farm servants ...	1,714	3,351	442	436	10	6	5,959	2,166	3,793
Jhum cultivators ...	40	258	286	278	9,768	10,155	20,785	10,094	10,691
Garden labourers ...	44,297	46,595	11,372	12,304	23	4	114,595	55,692	58,903
Road, Canal and Railway labourers.	319	237	170	70	11,382	2,340	14,518	11,871	2,647

* Figure for Cachar Plains.

TABLE VI.

Vital Statistics.

Year.	Population under registration in 1901.	Ratio of births per mille.	Ratio of deaths per mille.	Ratio of deaths per mille from—			
				Cholera.	Small-pox.	Fever.	Bowel com-plaints.
1901	414,781	35·38	29·96	2·84	0·20	14·13	2·68
1902	414,781	35·58	28·85	2·09	2·71	10·57	2·59
1903	414,781	34·89	27·93	1·34	1·06	11·20	2·43
1904	414,781	36·54	22·28	0·50	0·07	9·22	2·28
1905							
1906							
1907							
1908							
1909							
1910							
1911							
1912							

Table VII.

Crop Statistics.

Particulars.	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04	1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
Total District.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
Total cropped area	288,783	320,190	330,208	317,172								
Rice	167,877	206,230	213,727	208,690								
Mustard	7,725	10,078	11,242	11,748								
Sugarcane... ...	2,864	4,972	5,240	5,229								
Pulse	6,000	5,861	5,540	4,297								
All other crops ...	104,317	93,049	94,459	87,208								

PARTICULARS.	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
TEA.												
Silchar subdivision.												
Number of gardens ...	150	148	147	133								
Area in acres	152,210	173,039	187,904	203,783								
Area under plant in acres.	48,601	48,402	47,923	47,972								
Outturn in lbs. ...	26,341,954	20,703,670	23,480,380	24,204,866								
Labour force	60,658	57,996	52,591	49,935								
Labourers including dependents imported during the year.*	1,921	...	1,118	1,537								

* The immigration statistics are compiled for the period from 1st July to 30th June since 1902-03.

TABLE VII.

Crop Statistics—concluded.

PARTICULARS.	1901	1902	1903	1904	1905	1906	1907	1908	1909	1910	1911	1912
TEA.												
Hailakandi sub-division.												
Number of gardens ...	35	34	33	31								
Area in acres	70,903	67,988	68,363	69,690								
Area under plant in acres.	11,945	11,971	12,113	11,353								
Outturn in lbs. ...	4,745,610	5,471,837	9,062,207	7,445,593								
Labour force	15,988	15,610	13,429	13,596								
Labourers including dependents imported during the year.*	591	...	123	274								

PUNJAB, CIVIL SECRETARIAT * LIBRARY LAHORE *

Total District.											
Number of gardens ...	185	182	180	164							
Area in acres	223,113	241,027	256,267	273,473							
Area under plant in acres. — held by Europeans.	59,070	58,852	58,565	57,790							
Area under plant in acres. — held by Natives.	1,476	1,521	1,471	1,535							
Outturn in lbs. ...	31,087,564	26,175,507	29,542,587	31,650,459							
Labour force	76,646	73,606	66,020	63,531							
Labourers including dependents imported during the year.*	2,512	...	1,241	1,811							

* The immigration statistics are compiled for the period from 1st July to 30th June since 1902-03.

TABLE

Reserved

Name of Reserve.	Area in sq. miles.	RECEIPTS.				
		1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04	1904-05
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Upper Jiri	24	102	2,087	2,836	1,092	
Lower "	14	63	949	667	542	
Barak	69	317	3,238	5,516	405	
Sonai	8	6	107	29	6	
Inner Line	497	27,149	26,817	17,767	21,676	
Katakhal	80	924	1,156	2,865	1,718	
Langting Mupa	80	...	...	...	...	
Barail	35	...	...	206	593	

VIII.

Forests.

Receipts.						
1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.

TABLE

Outturn of timber and fuel

DETAILS.	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
Reserved Forests—				
Area ... ... sq. miles	772	807	807	807
Outturn (Government and purchasers only.)				
Timber ... ... cft.	198,525	285,294	234,525	217,973
Fuel ... ... "	40,157	33,442	4,093	2,260
Unclassed State Forests—				
Area ... ... sq. miles	741	732	721	711
Outturn (Government and purchasers only.)				
Timber ... ... cft.	206,190	222,626	379,814	466,644
Fuel ... ... "	74,379	73,252	63,347	72,583
Rubber ... ... Rs.	10,883	436	175	284
Forest receipts ... ... "	1,06,695	92,288	1,06,230	1,34,128
" expenditure ... "	48,808	44,641	40,469	51,529
Surplus or deficit ... "	+57,887	+47,647	+65,761	+82,599

IX.

and value of minor forest produce.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12

TABLE X.

Prices of food staples in seers obtainable per rupee at selected marts.

	Silchar.			Hailakandi.		
	Rice, common.	Salt.	Matikalai.	Rice common.	Salt.	Matikalai.
1880 2nd week of February ...	15¼	8⅝	17¾	...	...	...
1880 ,, ,, of August ...	20	8⅞	21¼	...	...	...
1890 ,, ,, of February ...	14⅞	9¼	15	18	8	16
1890 ,, ,, of August ...	10	9½	16	13	8	18
1900 ,, ,, of February ...	16	9⅛	10⅝	22	8	20
1900 ,, ,, of August ...	14	9⅛	13	18	8	12
1901 ,, ,, of February ...	9½	10	12	9	8	16
1901 ,, ,, of August ...	11	9⅜	12	8	8	12
1902 ,, ,, of February ...	16	10	13	16	8	12
1902 ,, ,, of August ...	12	10	13	14	8	13
1903 ,, ,, of February ...	14	10½	12	18	8	16
1903 ,, ,, of August ...	13	12	13	15	10½	13

1904	,, ,, of February ...	$19\frac{1}{8}$	$12\frac{1}{2}$	12	24	10	16
	,, ,, of August ...	$17\frac{3}{4}$	$12\frac{3}{4}$	$15\frac{3}{16}$	22	$10\frac{5}{8}$	$13\frac{1}{2}$
1905	,, ,, of February ...	$19\frac{3}{8}$	$12\frac{3}{4}$	$13\frac{5}{16}$	25	$10\frac{3}{4}$	15
	,, ,, of August ...						
1906	,, ,, of February ...						
	,, ,, of August ...						
1907	,, , of February ...						
	,, ,, of August ...						
1908	,, ,, of February ...						
	,, ,, of August ...						
1909	,, ,, of February ...						
	,, ,, of August ...						
1910	,, ,, of February ...						
	,, ,, of August ...						
1911	,, ,, of February ...						
	,, ,, of August ...						
1912	,, ,, of February ...						
	,, ,, of August ...						

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal and Civil

Heads of Crime.	1902		1903		1904	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
SILCHAR SUBDIVISION.						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly. Sections 143-153, 157, 158 and 159.	20	7	29	13	16	14
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, &c.	2	2	4	2	1	1
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder, and culpable homicide. Sections 302-304, 307, 308 and 396.	6	2	9	4	3	1
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon. Sections 324-326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	14	6	17	7	23	4
(v) Serious criminal force. Sections 353, 354, 356 and 357.	4	1	2	...	6	1
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	5	2	6	4	8	5
(vii) Dacoity. Sections 395, 397 and 398.	2	2	1	...	...	...
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning, or maiming any animal. Sections 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430-433 and 435-440.	19	1	16	...	8	2
(ix) House-breaking and serious house-trespass. Sections 449-452, 454, 455 and 457-460.	95	7	98	4	105	8
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement. Sections 341-344.	4	1	9	1	4	1

XI.

Justice by subdivisions.

1905		1906		1907		1908		1909		1910		1911		1912	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

PUNJAB, CIVIL SECRETARIAT LIBRARY

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal and Civil

Heads of Crime.	1902 True.	1902 Detected.	1903 True.	1903 Detected.	1904 True.	1904 Detected.
SILCHAR SUBDIVISION—*concld.*						
Criminal Justice.						
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against property.	...	...	2	...	...	...
(xii) Theft. Sections 379--382	165	46	119	32	110	35
(xiii) Receiving stolen property. Sections 411 and 414.	1	1	3	2	4	3
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house-trespass. Sections 453, 456, 447 and 448.	20	7	17	6	15	6
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	9	1	7	2	3	1
TOTAL ...	366	86	339	77	306	82
HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISION.						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly. Sections 143-153, 157, 158 and 159.	18	11	5	4	5	3
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, &c.	2	1	5	3	...	...
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder, and culpable homicide. Sections 302-304, 307, 308 and 396.	...	...	1	1	3	...
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon. Sections 324-326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	2	1	9	4	3	1

XI.

Justice by subdivisions—continued.

1905		1906		1907		1908		1909		1910		1911		1912	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal and Civil

Heads of Crime.	1902		1903		1904	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISION—*contd.*						
Criminal Justice.						
(v) Serious criminal force. Sections 353, 354, 356 and 357.	1	...	1	...	1	...
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	1	...	5	3	...	...
(vii) Dacoity. Sections 395, 397 and 398.	1	...	3	...	2	2
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning, or maiming any animal. Sections 270,281, 282, 428, 429, 430-433 and 435-440.	6	1	6	1	4	3
(ix) House-breaking and serious house-trespass. Sections 449-452, 454, 455 and 457-460.	36	4	31	2	40	4
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement. Sections 341-344.	...	...	3	1	3	...
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against property.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(xii) Theft. Sections 379—382.	41	17	33	13	29	13
(xiii) Receiving stolen property. Sections 411 and 414.	...	...	...	...	2	2
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house-trespass. Sections 453, 456, 447 and 448.	5	1	3	2	5	3
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	2	...	...	...	2	1
TOTAL ...	115	36	105	34	99	32

XI.

Justice by subdivisions—continued.

1905		1906		1907		1908		1909		1910		1911		1912	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal and Civil

Heads of Crime.	1902 True.	1902 Detected.	1903 True.	1903 Detected.	1904 True.	1904 Detected.
NORTH CACHAR SUBDIVISION.						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly. Sections 143—153, 157, 158 and 159.	3	2	1	...	1	...
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, etc.	6	2	2	2	...	...
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder, and culpable homicide. Sections 302-304, 307, 308 and 396.	...	...	1	1	...	...
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon. Sections 324—326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	5	3	4	1	1	1
(v) Serious criminal force. Sections 353, 354, 356 and 357.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	3	2	1	1	...	...
(vii) Dacoity. Sections 395, 397 and 398.	...	...	...	...	...	...
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning, or maiming any animal. Sections 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430-433 and 435-440.	...	...	...	...	1	...
(ix) House-breaking and serious house-trespass. Sections 449-452, 454, 455 and 457-460.	17	6	8	3	...	...
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement. Sections 341-344.	3	...	1	...	...	...

XI.

Justice by subdivisions—continued.

1905		1906		1907		1908		1909		1910		1911		1912	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected .	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal and Civil

Heads of Crime.	1902		1903		1904	
	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.
NORTH CACHAR SUBDIVISION—*concld.*						
Criminal Justice.						
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against property.	1	1	...	...	...	...
(xii) Theft. Sections 379—382.	20	12	20	7	6	...
(xiii) Receiving stolen property. Sections 411 and 414.	1	1	1	1	1	...
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house-trespass. Sections 453, 456, 447, and 448.	1	...	2	...	1	...
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	5	...	1	1	...	...
TOTAL ...	65	29	42	17	11	1
TOTAL DISTRICT.						
Criminal Justice.						
Number of cases.						
(i) Rioting or unlawful assembly. Sections 143-153, 157, 158 and 159.	41	20	35	17	22	17
(ii) Other offences against the State, public tranquillity, etc.	10	5	11	7	1	1
(iii) Murder, attempt at murder, and culpable homicide. Sections 302-304, 307, 308 and 396.	6	2	11	6	6	1
(iv) Grievous hurt and hurt by dangerous weapon. Sections 324-326, 329, 331, 333 and 335.	21	10	30	12	27	6
(v) Serious criminal force. Sections 353, 354, 356 and 357.	5	1	3	...	7	1
(vi) Other serious offences against the person.	9	4	12	8	8	5

XI.

Justice by subdivisions—continued.

1905		1906		1907		1908		1909		1910		1911		1912	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.

TABLE

Statistics of Criminal and Civil

Heads of Crime.	1902 True.	1902 Detected.	1903 True.	1903 Detected.	1904 True.	1904 Detected.
TOTAL DISTRICT—*concld.*						
Criminal Justice.						
(vii) Dacoity. Sections 395, 397 and 398.	3	2	4	...	2	
(viii) Serious mischief, including mischief by killing, poisoning, or maiming any animal. Sections 270, 281, 282, 428, 429, 430-433 and 435-440.	25	2	22	1	13	5
(ix) House-breaking and serious house-trespass. Sections 449-452, 454, 455 and 457-460.	148	17	137	9	145	12
(x) Wrongful restraint and confinement. Sections 341-344.	7	1	13	2	7	1
(xi) Other serious offences against the person and property or against property.	1	1	2	...	...	...
(xii) Theft. Sections 379—382.	226	75	172	52	145	48
(xiii) Receiving stolen property. Sections 411 and 414.	2	2	4	3	7	5
(xiv) Lurking and criminal house-trespass. Sections 453, 456, 447 and 448.	26	8	22	8	21	9
(xv) Other minor offences against property.	16	1	8	3	5	2
TOTAL ...	546	151	486	128	416	115
Civil Justice.						
Suits for money and moveables ...	1,572		1,586			
Title or other suits	312		298			
Rent suits	116		148			
TOTAL ...	2,000		2,032			

XI.

Justice by subdivisions—concluded.

1905		1906		1907		1908		1909		1910		1911		1912	
True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	True.	Detected.	Tru .	Detected.

TABLE

Finance.—

PRINCIPAL HEADS.	1890-91	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Land revenue (ordinary).	3,36,423	4,00,120	4,77,885	4,79,802	4,79,285
Land revenue (miscellaneous).	13,062	18,919	24,361	20,705	29,098
Provincial rates ...	28,959	29,030	46,953	44,469	42,139
Judicial stamps ...	41,835	65,459	65,091	70,177	66,738
Non-judicial stamps	23,801	29,513	24,717	28,214	29,089
Opium	41,626	84,581	77,050	80,389	80,872
Country spirits ...	98,258	1,28,343	1,15,463	1,03,048	1,16,375
Ganja	55,886	70,515	65,669	68,544	71,899
Other heads of excise	2,249	8,220	5,593	4,165	4,630
Assessed taxes ...	25,890	31,074	33,822	36,009	28,879
No. of assessees per thousand.	2	2	2	2	1
Forests	37,950	1,06,695	92,288	1,06,230	1,34,128
Registration*... ...	4,912	6,807	6,300	8,056	7,747
TOTAL ...	7,10,851	9,79,276	10,35,192	10,49,808	10,90,879

* Registration statistics are given for the calendar year

XII.

Receipts.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.

from 1903, which corresponds with 1902-03 in this statement.

TABLE

Miscellaneous land revenue

PARTICULARS.	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
SILCHAR SUBDIVISION.				
House tax	1,296	1,246	1,190	1,080
Fisheries	6,558	7,581	5,141	10,975
TOTAL REVENUE ...	11,256	10,402	7,498	16,312
HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISION.				
Elephants	...	...	...	4,800
House tax	156	110	80	78
Fisheries	...	...	...	1,306
TOTAL REVENUE ...	889	159	1,417	6,214
NORTH CACHAR SUBDIVISION.				
Elephants	...	7,100	5,250	...
House tax	6,774	6,700	6,540	6,572
TOTAL REVENUE ...	6,774	13,800	11,790	6,572
TOTAL DISTRICT.				
Elephants	...	7,100	5,250	4,800
House tax	8,226	8,056	7,810	7,730
Fisheries	6,558	7,581	5,141	12,281
Other heads	4,135	1,624	2,504	4,287
TOTAL REVENUE ...	18,919	24,361	20,705	29,098

XIII.

by subdivisions.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.

TABLE

Land tenures by

PARTICULARS.	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
SILCHAR SUBDIVISION.				
Total land settled for cultivation of ordinary crops.	219,300	216,004	247,682	245,123
Held on ordinary tenures	217,509	215,144	246,927	244,384
Held revenue-free (Lakhiraj)	1,791	860	755	739
Total land settled for cultivation of special staples.	222,719	224,051	199,799	199,446
Area of fee-simple and commuted grants	95,365	95,365	92,322	93,703
Area settled under other special rules ...	20,623	20,623	20,420	20,611
Area settled on 30 years' lease	2,734	2,734	4,601	3,192
Area settled under ordinary rules or re-settled on expiry of 30 years' lease	103,997	105,329	82,456	81,940
Total land settled for other purposes ...	1,922	1,915	1,272	1,255
Total settled area of subdivision ..	443,941	441,970	448,753	445,824
Total unsettled area of subdivision* ...	611,419	613,390	606,607	451,609
HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISON.				
Total land settled for cultivation of ordinary crops.	89,371	90,579	94,552	100,457
Held on ordinary tenure	88,899	90,107	94,080	99,985
Held revenue-free (Lakhiraj)	472	472	472	472
Total land settled for cultivation of special staples.	63,746	63,746	63,950	65,363
Area of fee-simple and commuted grants	50,429	50,429	50,429	50,620
Area settled under other special rules ...	5,303	5,303	5,303	5,303

* Owing to a change in the boundaries of the

XIV.

subdivisions.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.

district the area was changed in 1903-04.

TABLE

Land tenures by

PARTICULARS.	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.
HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISION—*concld.*				
Area settled on 30 years' lease	437	437	437	1,238
Area settled under ordinary rules or re-settled on expiry of 30 years' lease.	7,577	7,577	7,781	8,202
Total land settled for other purposes ...	211	211	211	210
Total settled area of subdivision	153,328	154,536	158,713	166,030
Total unsettled area of subdivision* ...	111,632	110,424	106,247	161,163
TOTAL DISTRICT.				
Total land settled for cultivation of ordinary crops.	308,671	306,583	342,234	345,580
Held on ordinary tenures	306,408	305,251	341,007	344,369
Held revenue-free (Lakhiraj)	2,263	1,332	1,227	1,211
Total land settled for cultivation of special staples.	286,465	287,797	263,749	264,809
Area of fee-simple and commuted grants	145,794	145,794	142,751	144,323
Area settled under other special rules ...	25,926	25,926	25,723	25,914
Area settled on 30 years' lease	3,171	3,171	5,038	4,430
Area settled under ordinary rules or re-settled on expiry of 30 years' lease.	111,574	112,906	90,237	90,142
Total land settled for other purposes ...	2,133	2,126	1,483	1,465
Total settled area of district (Plains) ...	597,269	596,506	607,466	611,854
Total unsettled area of district (Plains)*...	723,051	723,814	712,854	612,772

* Owing to a change in the boundaries of the

XIV.

subdivisions—concluded.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.	Acres.

district the area was changed in 1903-04.

TABLE

Excise by

PRINCIPAL HEADS.		1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
SILCHAR SUBDIVISION.					
Number of opium shops ...	...	13	14	10	14
Amount paid for licenses	Rs.	7,777	9,741	7,569	6,835
Opium issued	...	*m. s. ch.* 21 21 0	*m. s. ch.* 14 32 0	*m. s. ch.* 14 30 0	*m s. ch.* 21 7 0
Duty on opium sold ...	Rs.	24,539	16,872	18,668	24,139
Number of ganja shops ...	...	27	27	24	27
Amount paid for licenses	Rs.	21,585	19,609	19,222	16,693
Amount of ganja issued ...	...	*m. s. ch.* 118 21 0	*m. s. ch.* 92 4 0	*m. s. ch.* 104 14 0	*m. s. ch.* 118 31 0
Duty on ganja sold ...	Rs.	33,145	27,926	29,801	31,520
Number of country spirit shops...		21	2I	21	21
Amount paid for licenses	Rs.	88,364	85,079	73,273	80,467
Number of distilleries ...	...	...	...	...	...
Amount of liquor issued ...	...	...	...	...	...
Still-head duty	Rs.	...	...	...	...
Number of retail shops ...	...	...	...	...	...
Amount paid for licenses	Rs.	...	...	...	...
Other heads of excise revenue	Rs.	2,497	2,192	2,818	2,440
HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISION.					
Number of opium shops ...	...	6	7	6	5
Amount paid for licenses ...	Rs.	1,953	1,971	1,615	1,620
Opium issued	...	*m. s. ch.* 5 14 0	*m. s. ch.* 4 32 0	*m. s. ch.* 5 34 0	*m. s. ch.* 4 35 0
Duty on opium sold ...	Rs.	6,099	5,472	6,669	5,557
Number of ganja shops ...	...	14	13	12	13

XV.

subdivisions.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
m. s. ch.	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	
m. s. ch.	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch*	
m. s. ch.	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch*	

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TABLE

Excise by

Principal heads.		1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
Hailakandi Subdivision —*concld.*					
Amount paid for licenses...	Rs.	5,174	5,300	5,087	6,185
Amount of ganja issued ...	...	*m. s. ch.* 27 39 8	*m. s. ch.* 28 2 8	*m. s. ch.* 41 14 8	*m. s. ch.* 34 24 8
Duty on ganja sold ...	Rs.	6,886	7,024	10,434	8,799
Number of country spirit shops ...		11	11	11	11
Amount paid for licenses	Rs.	19,634	21,374	20,250	21,138
Number of distilleries ...	...	...	...	...	...
Amount of liquor issued	...	...	...	...	...
Still-head duty	Rs.	...	...	...	...
Number of retail shops ...	...	...	...	...	...
Amount paid for licenses	Rs.	...	...	...	...
Other heads of excise revenue	Rs.	61	41	22	361
North Cachar Subdivision.					
Number of opium shops ...	...	6	7	7	6
Amount paid for licenses	Rs.	12,293	11,445	12,210	13,480
Opium issued	...	*m. s. ch.* 28 0 0	*m. s. ch.* 27 27 0	*m. s. ch.* 31 6 0	*m. s. ch.* 25 26 0
Duty on opium sold ...	Rs.	31,920	31,549	33,658	29,241
Number of ganja shops ...	...	2	2	2	2
Amount paid for licenses*	Rs.	3,725	5,810	4,000	5,702
Number of country spirit shops ...		3	1	3	3
Amount paid for licenses	Rs.	20,345	9,010	9,525	14,770

* There is no ganja golah in the North Cachar subdivision.

XV.

subdivisions—continued.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
m. s. ch.	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s ch*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	
m. s. ch.	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	

Ganja is issued from Silchar and the duty levied there.

TABLE

Excise by

PRINCIPAL HEADS.	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
NORTH CACHAR SUBDIVISION —*concld.*				
Number of distilleries	...	...	...	...
	m. s. ch.	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*
Amount of liquor issued	...	...	...	...
Still-head duty ... ... Rs.	...	...	...	...
Number of retail shops	...	...	...	...
Amount paid for licenses Rs.	...	...	...	...
Other heads of excise revenue Rs.	5,662	3,360	1,325	1,829
TOTAL DISTRICT.				
Number of opium shops	25	28	23	25
Amount paid for licenses Rs.	22,023	23,157	21,394	21,935
	m. s. ch.	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*
Opium issued	54 35 0	47 11 0	51 30 0	51 28 0
Duty on opium sold ... Rs.	62,558	53,893	58,995	58,937
Number of ganja shops	43	42	38	42
Amount paid for licenses ... Rs.	30,484	30,719	28,309	31,580
	m. s. ch.	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*	*m. s. ch.*
Amount of ganja issued	146 20 8	120 6 8	145 28 8	153 15 8
Duty on ganja sold ... Rs.	40,031	34,950	40,235	40,319
Number of country spirit shops ...	35	33	35	35
Amount paid for licenses Rs.	1,28,343	1,15,463	1,03,048	1,16,375
Number of distilleries	...	...	...	...
Amount of liquor issued	...	...	...	...
Still-head duty ... ... Rs.	...	...	...	...
Number of retail shops	...	...	...	...
Amount paid for licenses... Rs.	...	...	...	...
Other heads of excise revenue Rs.	8,220	5,593	4,165	4,630

XV.

ubdivisions—concluded.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12
m. s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch*	*m.* s. *ch.*	
m. s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	
m. s. *ch*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	*m.* s. *ch.*	

TABLE XVI.

INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF LOCAL BOARDS.

Silchar Local Board.

Sources of income.	Income.		Heads of expenditure.	Expenditure.	
	1890-91	1900-01		1890-91	1900-01
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
Provincial rates	20,956	19,864	Post Office	762	902
Police	3,882	6,436	Administration	149	149
Tolls on ferries	27,405	18,684	Education	8,368	12,705
Contributions	2,733	12,980	Medical	1,020	5,040
Debt	...	4,361	Civil works	25,255	40,116
Miscellaneous	1,030	849	Debt	...	4,369
			Contributions	...	264
			Miscellaneous	2,047	1,529
TOTAL ...	56,006	63,174	TOTAL ...	37,601	65,074

Hailakandi Local Board.

Sources of income.	Income. 1890-91	Income. 1900-01	Heads of expenditure.	Expenditure. 1890-91	Expenditure. 1900-01
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
Provincial rates	8,003	9,181	Post Office	...	368
Police	...	1,952	Administration	62	63
Tolls on ferries	4,379	3,761	Education	4,405	5,262
Contributions	10,267	14,774	Medical	443	880
Debt	...	2,154	Civil works	14,569	28,746
Miscellaneous	548	1,822	Debt	...	2,154
			Miscellaneous	637	331
Total ...	23,197	33,644	Total ...	20,116	37,804

Table XVII.

Municipal.

Silchar Municipality.

Sources of income.	Income. 1890-91	Income. 1900-01	Heads of expenditure.	Expenditure. 1890-91	Expenditure. 1900-01
	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.
Opening balance	1,321	4,284	Administration	837	1,007
Tax on houses and lands	3,383	5,665	Conservancy	3,703	6,407
Pounds	1,193	530	Public works	2,848	5,310
Fees from markets	3,366	3,046	Public instruction	402	646
Grants from Provincial and Local Funds.	1,841	2,953	Drainage	798	993
Tolls on roads and ferries	3,664	3,745	Other heads	5,708	6,830
Other sources	1,104	3,507	Closing balance	1,576	2,537
Total ...	15,872	23,730	Total ...	15,872	23,730

TABLE XVIII.

Strength of Police Force.

PARTICULARS.	1881	1891	1901
CIVIL POLICE.			
Supervising Staff.			
District and Assistant Superintendents	2	2	2
Inspectors	2	1	1
Subordinate Staff.			
Sub-Inspectors	4	6	10
Head Constables	15	18	15
Constables	86	112	147
Rural Police	307	464	658
Union and Municipal Police	13	...	...
MILITARY POLICE.			
Officers	...	...	49
Men	...	...	322
Total Expenditure Rs. ...	42,524	55,424	178,086

Actual strength for 1881 and sanctioned strength for other years. As the full sanctioned number of Sub-Inspectors was not entertained during 1901, the actual number of Sub-Inspectors and Head Constables is shown for that year. The information regarding Military Police for 1891 is not available.

TABLE XIX.

Police Stations and Outposts in 1904.

Name of Police Station or Outpost.	Sanctioned Strength.			
	Sub-Inspector.	Head Constables.	Constables.	Total.
Silchar—				
Barkhala—O.P.	1	......	5	6
Katigara—P.S.	2	......	11	13
Lakhipur—P.S.	2	......	11	13
Silchar—P.S.	3	......	18	21
Sonai—O.P.	2	......	7	9
Hailakandi—				
Hailakandi—P.S.	3	......	13	16
Katlichara—O.P. ...	1	......	5	6

TABLE XX.

STATISTICS OF JAILS.

Silchar Jail.

		1881	1891	1901
Average daily population ...	Male ...	90·68	78·17	64·82
	Female ...	11·07	1·81	0·34
Rate of jail mortality per 1000		10	63	46
Expenditure on Jail maintenance ... Rs.		9,153	5,548	5,375
Cost per prisoner* (excluding civil prisoners) ... ... Rs.		44	44	45
Profits on jail manufacture ... ... "		5,014	531	578
Earnings per prisoner† ... ... "		60	8	11

* On rations and clothing only.

† Calculated on the average number sentenced to labour.

TABLE

Educa

	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
SECONDARY SCHOOLS.				
High Schools.				
Number	1	1	1	2
Number of boys reading in High School Classes.	77	96	65	74
Number of boys reading in Middle School Classes.	41	40	81	103
Number of boys reading in Primary Classes	194	193	163	261
Middle English Schools.				
Number	3	4	4	3
Number of boys reading in Middle School Classes.	74	63	73	43
Number of boys reading in Primary Classes	268	281	318	271
Middle Vernacular Schools.				
Number	...	1	1	1
Number of boys reading in Middle School Classes.	...	7	8	7
Number of boys reading in Primary Classes	...	26	65	55
PRIMARY SCHOOLS.				
Upper Primary Schools.				
Number	12	11	11	11
Number of boys reading in Upper Primary Classes.	116	118	126	126
Number of boys reading in Lower Primary Classes.	360	293	288	278

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XI.

ton.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12

TABLE

Education—

	1900-01	1901-02	1902-03	1903-04
Lower Primary Schools.				
Number	227	232	235	230
Number of boys reading in three upper classes.	(a) 6,248	(a) 6,543	2,443	4,347
Number of boys reading in lower classes			4,317	2,194
FEMALE EDUCATION.				
Number of girls' schools	9	8	6	4
Number of girls reading (whether in girls' or boys' schools) in—				
High Schools	...	...	...	...
Middle English Schools ...	...	...	...	...
Middle Vernacular Schools ...	...	...	...	...
Upper Primary Schools ...	64	68	66	60
Lower Primary Schools ...	400	427	404	238

(a) Separate figures

XXI.

concluded.

1904-05	1905-06	1906-07	1907-08	1908-09	1909-10	1910-11	1911-12

not available.

TABLE XXII.

Educational Finance.

PARTICULARS.	Number of institutions.	EXPENDITURE ON INSTITUTIONS MAINTAINED OR AIDED BY PUBLIC FUNDS IN 1900-01 FROM—					Amount per head of scholar.
		Provincial Revenues.	District and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.
Training and Special Schools	3	1,367	452	1,275	...	3,094	55 4 0
Secondary Boys' Schools—							
Upper (High)	1	853	...	5,003	...	5,856	19 9 4
Lower (Middle)	3	776	1,056	1,780	454	4,066	13 4 7
Primary Boys' School—							
Upper	12	...	1,568	729	521	2,818	6 4 5
Lower	227	...	12,844	2,985	243	16,072	2 11 8
Girls' Schools	9	...	502	...	240	742	4 10 2
TOTAL ...	255	2,996	16,422	11,772	1,458	32,648	4 9 0

TABLE XXIII.

Medical.

PARTICULARS.	SILCHAR SUBDIVISION.			HAILAKANDI SUBDIVISION.			NORTH CACHAR SUBDIVISION.			TOTAL DISTRICT.		
	1881	1891	1901	1881	1891	1901	1881	1891	1901	1881	1891	1901
Number of dispensaries	1	2	4	1	1	1	...	1	1	2	4	6
Daily average number of in-door patients.	38·42	44·33	41·32	4·93	3·25	5·11	...	0·91	...	43·35	48·49	46·43
Daily average number of out-door patients.	25·12	63·47	108·37	40·29	30·89	40·96	...	5·52	16·25	65·41	99·88	165·58
Cases treated	5,949	19,845	30,995	5,683	10,126	9,567	...	1,867	3,377	11,632	31,838	43,939
Operations performed...	276	528	998	94	77	257	...	15	19	370	620	1,274
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Total income	4,965	8,164	10,603	1,075	1,618	1,777	...	275	487	6,040	10,057	12,867
Income from Government.	279	2,299	2,615	171	162	187	...	275	487	450	2,736	3,289
Income from Local and Municipal Funds.	3,936	990	5,514	716	290	1,080	...	...	...	4,652	1,280	6,594
Subscriptions	750	514	592	188	57	255	...	...	...	938	571	847
Total expenditure ...	4,965	8,164	10,222	1,075	1,613	1,772	...	275	487	6,040	10,052	12,481
Expenditure on establishment.	1,126	2,785	3,812	516	540	570	...	120	156	1,642	3,445	4,538
Ratio per mille of persons successfully vaccinated.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	(a) 9·45	20·61	24·90
											Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Cost per case	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 2 10½	0 3 5

(a) Figures for 1881–82.

TABLE XXIV.

Dispensaries.

Name of Dispensary.	1900		1901		1902		1903		1904		1905	
	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	
Silchar	5,874	12,484	5,913	14,522	5,455	13,909	6,051	13,258	6,220	13,539		
Hailakandi	1,877	9,301	1,772	9,567	1,382	11,607	1,176	12,121	1,221	12,230		
Katigara	1,199	6,998	1,074	7,082	504	7,139	905	7,356	3,102	7,801		
Haflang	417	3,818	487	3,377	633	2,638	250	2,425	195	2,161		
Lakhipur	1,999	6,053	1,731	5,801	1,604	7,043	1,355	8,240	1,295	8,334		
Barkhala	2,770	2,853	1,505	3,590	2,042	3,176	830	4,235	1,148	4,623		
Fenchachara	...	...	...	...	...	...	*	6,878	1,005	9,272		

Name of Dispensary.	1906		1907		1908		1909		1910		1911		1912	
	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated	Total cost.	Cases treated.	Total cost.	Cases treated.
	Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.		Rs.	
Silchar														
Hailakandi														
Katigara														
Haflang														
Lakhipur														
Barkhala														
Fenchachara														

* Not available.

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